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Evaluating commensurability and validity of work-family conflict, enrichment, and culture measures in low income populations

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EVALUATING COMMENSURABILITY AND VALIDITY OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT, ENRICHMENT, AND CULTURE MEASURES IN LOW INCOME POPULATIONS

A Thesis

Presented to the

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by

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ABSTRACT

Traditional work and family research largely uses white collar, middle class populations to develop and test theory and measures designed to capture the work-family interface. As a result, there is a dearth of research on underrepresented disparate populations, such as low-income workers. The current study examines the commensurability and construct validity of work and family measurement tools, specifically three tools measuring work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, and family supportive work culture. The present research is exploratory and novel in nature and therefore has no specific hypotheses. Instead, the current study is guided by the research question: are work and family measures of conflict, enrichment, and work-family supportive culture valid for low-income populations? Responses from 231 participants are analyzed using confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses as well as structural equation models to determine commensurability of measure structure and predictive validity of each measure. Each measure shows some consistencies and inconsistencies with traditional literature. Specifically, the conflict measure structure is upheld, but the measure has little predictive validity for determining previously established outcomes. The

enrichment measure's structure holds and the measure predicts most outcomes, but the data-driven measure structure shows there may be some differences in how low-income populations perceive enrichment. Finally, the culture measure's structure is not commensurate for low-income populations, and some traditional links are not significant when used in the low-income sample. Overall, these results have implications for future study and measurement use and development that accurately and fully captures the work-family realities faced by low-income community members.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Low Income Populations

Maintaining both work and family roles can be a very challenging and rewarding experience that impacts one's personal and professional life (Britt & Dawson, 2005; Grzywacz, Arcury, Carrillo, Burke, Coates, & Quandt, 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Due to its important effects on both personal and organizational outcomes, the work and family interface is a burgeoning interest among Industrial/Organizational Psychology researchers (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011a).

Despite this surge of interest, the recent flurry of research has failed to have a positive impact on organizational practices, as evidenced by declining employee use of work-family programs and decreased satisfaction with work-life balance as well as employer support for work-family balance (Kossek et al., 2011a). Recently, researchers have speculated possible reasons to explain why organizations are not utilizing the growing body of work-family research to inform policies and practices. Kossek and her colleagues suggest we re-examine construct labels and definitions as well as expand our

research methods and designs beyond cross-sectional, correlational research. In their extensive work-family literature review, Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley (2005) observe that work-family researchers are preoccupied with the work domain and much less considerate of the family domain. As a result, researchers often fail to consistently measure specific and important family variables and outcomes.

While these observations and suggestions are important to narrowing the gap between work-family research and policy, they peripherally and partially address a major issue in current work and family research: failure to give meaningful consideration to populations (Agars & French, 2011). Current theories, measures, and constructs are developed and evaluated using primarily white collar, middle class populations (Grahame, 2003). Research on understudied populations in the work and family literature, such as low income workers, immigrants, and military workers, has suggested that these under represented populations have characteristics unique from traditional white collar, middle class populations (Breitkreuz, Williamson, & Raine, 2010; Chien-Ju, 2009; Heilmann, Bell, & McDonald, 2009). These characteristics translate into qualitatively different relationships

between work and family for the population of interest. Because our measures and constructs are not built to accommodate the unique construction of work and family relationships in low-income populations, studies utilizing existing work and family theory and measures are not likely to generalize.

The purpose of the proposed research is to examine the adequacy of our current work-family constructs and measures for studying under represented populations by evaluating the commensurability and construct validity of three major work and family measures, conflict, enrichment, and culture, when applied to the unique population of low income families. The measurement tools researchers utilize to operationalize work-family constructs are fundamentally important for quantitative research that is used to inform future theory and practice. Without valid and reliable measures, we are left with equivocal research results and implications for both research and practice. Examining the scales used to measure work-family constructs is therefore essential for creating a meaningful base upon which to fulfill the gap in quantitative research for low-income populations. Previously, researchers have called for more consideration of population differences (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton,

2000; Bianchi & Milkie, 2010) as well as continued validation of measurement tools to explain differences between studies (Allen et al., 2000; Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, & Lambert, 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). This research aims to address both calls for future research, potentially strengthening our knowledge on existing measures as well as the populations we use to study the work-family interface.

To build the literature base for this study, I will first discuss the characteristics that differentiate low-income populations from the more commonly studied middle class, white collar populations. Next, I will discuss conflict, enrichment and boundary work and family theories and the tools we use to measure each theory. Although each theory has multiple measurement tools, for the sake of parsimony I will focus on one commonly used measure per theory. Throughout this discussion of work-family theory, I will highlight how each theory inadequately addresses the work-family challenges faced by low-income populations. Due to the nature of this commensurability study, I have no specific hypotheses about expected results. Instead, this research is guided by a primary research question: are work and family

measures of conflict, enrichment, and work-family supportive culture valid for low-income populations?

Characteristics of Low Income Populations

Low-income populations are understudied in the work and family literature relative to white-collar, middle-class populations, particularly within the Industrial/Organizational field (Agars & French, 2011). Much of the existing research on low-income families occurs in other disciplines, such as sociology and social work, and often takes a qualitative approach to studying work and family relationships. While the overall volume of research on low-income populations is smaller than that of higher income populations, a larger deficiency for low-income work and family literature is the lack of quantitative research examining current theories of the work-family interface. While taking a qualitative approach is essential for studying complex phenomena, such as work and family interactions, we have very little quantifiable data upon which to test work-family theory and cause-and-effect relationships using large samples. To understand how current work-family theories and measures map onto low-income populations, we first need to have a

thorough understanding of low-income work and family role characteristics.

Overall, low-income families have limited access to important resources that are more readily available in the typically studied middle class, white collar populations (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). First, low-income families by definition have limited access to financial support (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). Even with financial aid from the government, low-income families struggle to stay above the poverty level. Their inability to transfer off welfare is perpetuated by characteristics such as limited education and experience, health problems, and sole responsibility for childcare, which put them at a disadvantage for finding and retaining employment (Ciabattari, 2007). Due to their limited income, low socio-economic-status (SES) families also do not have many modern conveniences to help balance work and family, such as microwaves, dishwashers, cars, and vacuums (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). In addition to limited physical resources, low-income families are often single-parent households, specifically single mothers, and their children (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). Because of their single-parent status, these mothers lead hectic lives trying to balance between providing for their children financially and

spending quality time with them, often becoming stressed and fatigued (London, Scott, Edin, & Hunter, 2004). Furthermore, low-income families are more prone to health and behavioral problems, which is exacerbated by limited access to healthcare (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Heymann, Penrose, & Earle, 2006). Children of low income families are sick more often, miss immunizations, are less likely to keep doctor appointments, and are more likely to have disabilities or special needs (Heymann et al., 2006; Morris & Levine Coley, 2004). This lack of adequate health care and predisposition to illness and disability puts not only children at risk, but also parents may be more at risk for work disruptions, which can harm current and future employment prospects (Udansky & Wolf, 2008).

One of the biggest differences between low income and middle to upper class populations is the availability and use of reliable and affordable childcare (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). Higher income populations have financial resources to obtain quality, reliable childcare, and they can rely on formal organization policies to help them effectively deal with everyday child care as well as emergencies (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). In contrast, lower income populations often struggle to find accessible, reliable, and quality child care options (Breitkreuz et

al., 2010). Quality childcare options are often out of their price range, and low income mothers find it is more expensive to work and pay for childcare than it is to simply not work and collect welfare. In addition, low-income mothers have difficulty finding formal childcare that will accommodate the shift work and irregular hours characteristic of low-income positions (Breitkreuz et al., 2010).

Due to financial and logistical limitations preventing formal child care options, low-income families must resort to unreliable and potentially poor quality child care options (Udansky & Wolf, 2008; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). Low-income mothers must rely heavily on their social network for informal childcare options, including kin (Sheely, 2010; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). However, informal childcare options are often unreliable and lead to more absences and disruptions from work, which can damage relationships with supervisors and prospects of advancement (London et al., 2004; Udansky & Wolf, 2008). To cope with the unreliability of informal childcare and work schedules, low SES parents sometimes create patchwork childcare options with several different childcare providers (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). Informal childcare networks are also unregulated and may be a dangerous

option for childcare (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). In addition, using kin as childcare providers can strain and complicate family relationships, which are a valuable resource to low income families (Sheely, 2010).

In addition to limited resources and access to adequate childcare, the design of work is typically different for low-income positions when compared with middle to high-income positions. Low-income positions often require shift work and/or irregular hours, including frequently changing schedules and working non-traditional hours such as swing or night shifts. These irregular shifts make it difficult to find childcare and can be stressful for children and parents (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). Low income positions are often inflexible and lack autonomy, giving the employee little control over their working hours and consequently possible time conflicts between work and family (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). In addition, low income positions often lack formal benefits higher income workers use to help facilitate family life such as sick leave and vacation time (Heymann et al., 2006). Instead, low SES workers rely on interpersonal skills and impression management to build relationships with supervisors, creating informal flexibility and benefits (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). Finally, low-income

single parents are more likely to turn down advancements in their jobs to maintain routines and fit with the family; due to their sole caretaker status, they cannot afford additional responsibilities or schedule changes, even if it means more money for their family (Sheely, 2010).

Federal support for managing work and family demands is also limited in its applicability to low-income families. The government provides some subsidies for childcare, but these subsidies are often not enough to cover quality childcare fees and are unavailable for school aged children (London et al., 2004). This is especially troublesome for low-income parents who work irregular and non-traditional shift work hours and therefore may not work while children are in school (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). In comparison with European countries, United States work and family policies, such as medical, pregnancy, and discretionary leave, are far less supportive financially (Heymann et al., 2006). For example, the Family Medical Leave Act protects the employee's job, but assumes a dual-breadwinner household and does not provide paid leave when the employee must take care of sick family members (Grahame, 2003). Therefore, the option to use this policy is not affordable

for low income and single breadwinner households, which rely heavily on a single steady income (Grahame, 2003). The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Act of 1996 (PRWORA) also seeks to help low income families balance work and family needs by providing financial assistance (Hennessy, 2009). However, to receive benefits, low-income families, typically single mothers, must be employed. As a result, low-income mothers must often take the first available job, which typically has low pay, flexibility, and autonomy for helping to balance work and family (Hennessy, 2009). The combination of aid and low wage positions are often not enough to sustain the family in a financial or healthy sense. Overall, federal policies provide inadequate financial support and, perhaps more importantly, little to no social support for working parents in low-income families (Grahame, 2003). These policies are created with dual-earner families in mind and therefore overlook the struggles faced by single parent households, limiting their ability to both provide for their family and advance in their career (Grahame, 2003; Sheely, 2010).

Finally, work and family roles in low-income populations are intertwined and dependent upon one another and perhaps not as separately defined as past work-family

research would suggest. Low-income working mothers view work as a moral obligation to the family because it provides not only financial sustenance, but also a good role model for children (Hennessy, 2009). Work is therefore an essential part of taking care of their family (Hennessy, 2009). While some women would rather spend all their time at home with the family, many are happy to work because it provides them with independence, self-esteem, and a chance to participate in roles beyond their family (London et al., 2004; Hennessy, 2009). However, they also report the welfare system's emphasis on consistent employment pushes them to put their role as a mother and caretaker on hold and spend more time away from their family (Hennessy, 2009). To attempt harmony between work and family roles, low-income mothers often search for and choose work that fits with their family, rather than fitting their family to their work situation (Son & Bauer, 2010). Time and structural issues are very important for establishing fit; positions that are close to home, have hours and shifts that fit with childcare availability, and flexibility and supervisor support are essential for establishing good fit between work and family (Son & Bauer, 2010; Swanberg, 2005).

From this review of low-income population work and family characteristics, several important and unique issues emerge. Low-income populations struggle with different and extreme work-family issues, such as limited resources, lower childcare quality and availability, inflexible, non-traditional, and fluctuating work hours, and less access to formal work-family policies (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Grahame, 2003). In addition to unique work-family issues, low-income parents see their work and family roles as interconnected and dependent on one another, as opposed to separate and competing (Hennessy, 2009). These characteristics reveal key differences in low-income populations when compared with more commonly studied white-collar, middle-class populations, and suggest that changes in how we conceptualize and measure the work-family interface may be needed.

Present Study Work and Family Constructs

The current research will focus on only two work and family constructs, conflict and enrichment, as well as work-family culture. Work-family conflict and enrichment are two of the most dominant theories in the work and family literature (MacDermid, 2005). Previous research has concluded work-family culture is critical for

understanding the work-family interface (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011b; Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler, & Cullen, 2010; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Due to conflict, enrichment, and supportive culture's wide use in the literature and because they are conceptually distinct from one another, examining their commensurability and validity will be applicable to a broad range of researchers and studies.

Work-Family Conflict

Work-family conflict is founded in role theory (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Role theory proposes individuals perform demanding roles, and when an individual takes on multiple roles, demands can become overwhelming and lead to inter-role conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). A commonly cited definition of work-family conflict based on role theory states it is "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). This definition implies work and family are unique, separate, and competing roles; participation in one role limits the ability to participate in additional roles (Frone, Russell, & Barnes-Farrell, 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Even this initial definition of

work-family conflict is potentially problematic for capturing work and family relationships in low-income populations. Previous research indicates low-income working parents see their roles as interdependent and congruent, rather than independent and conflicting (Hennessy, 2009). In order to be successful in their family roles, low-income parents see working as a necessity rather than a hindrance (Hennessy, 2009), which is in contrast with Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) traditional definition of work-family conflict.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) outline three types of conflict, time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based, which are commonly used to more specifically define and measure work-family conflict (Carlson, Kacmar, Williams, 2000). Time-based conflict occurs when multiple role participation is difficult due to time constraints or when participation in one role is hindered due to preoccupation with other roles. Because time is a limited resource, time spent in one role limits time spent in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Several work and family characteristics contribute to time-based conflict, including shiftwork, number of hours in a particular role, marital and parental status, and schedule inflexibility (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Strain-based conflict occurs

when the strain in one role impacts performance in another role, resulting in tension, anxiety, depression, irritability, and apathy (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This form of inter-role conflict stems from ambiguous roles, low support, high demands, burnout, different career attitudes in spouse dyads, and extensive time in one particular role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).
Behavior-based conflict occurs when an individual exhibits behaviors appropriate for one domain in a different and likely incompatible domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Although the overall concept of conflict is generally inadequate for capturing low-income work and family experiences, some low-income characteristics clearly exemplify each of the three types of conflict. For example, low-income workers struggle with shiftwork, non-traditional work hours, and inflexible schedules, which contribute to time-based conflict because they limit time in the family domain (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Hennessy, 2009; Sheely, 2010). However, many low-income parents do not see time spent in the work domain as conflicting with their ability to be a good parent; finding adequate childcare is often a more pressing issue for low-income families which is more of a structural/logistical conflict rather than a time conflict

(Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Swanberg, 2005; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). Similarly, strain-based conflict may occur because positions occupied by low-income workers have very little formal support and the home environment also offers little support due to limited social networks and financial capital (Grahame, 2003; Sheely, 2010; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). However, low-income families often rely on informal impression management tactics, rather than the white-collar formal policies to obtain workplace support and benefits (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). Measures and studies targeting formal work-family policies may not reveal an accurate picture of low-income workers' workplace support. Similarly, research assessing spousal support would be less useful for studying low-income populations because many families have a single parent who instead relies more heavily on extended kin and informal childcare arrangements (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Sheely, 2010). Dierdorff and Ellington (2008) found occupational characteristics impacted the severity of behavior-based work-family conflict. Positions characterized by lower wages and shiftwork, such as taxi drivers and tellers, had the least amount of behavior-based work-family conflict, revealing behavior-based conflict may not be prevalent for positions likely occupied by low-income workers.

After reviewing the basic definition and forms of work-family conflict, there is a clear disconnect between the characteristics of low-income populations and the conceptual definitions of work-family conflict. In low-income populations, work and family domains are more intertwined and dependent on one another, rather than conflicting. While we can draw some connections from conflict variables to low-income characteristics, these characteristics, such as support and outcomes of scheduling conflicts, are qualitatively different from the more commonly studied white collar populations. Finally, it is important to note that the current forms of work-family conflict do not account for structural issues, such as lack of transportation, amenities, and adequate child care, that are critical challenges for the work-family interface in low-income populations (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Swanberg, 2005; Weigt & Solomon, 2008).

Work-Family Conflict Models

Over the past few decades, researchers have developed models to explain how work-family conflict impacts individuals and to guide future research (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). The first model, developed by Kopelman, Greenhaus, and Connolly (1983), defines conflict as a

mediator between the work and family domains. This founding model predicted cross-domain effects in only one direction, work-impacting family, and did not allow for reciprocal relationships between the two domains. While the idea of conflict as a mediator is still evident in more recent models (e.g. Frone et al., 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997), Frone et al., (1992) expanded on Kopeleman et al.,'s (1983) conflict model, developing a more sophisticated model that distinguished two directions of conflict, work impacting family and family impacting work. This model allows for a reciprocal relationship between the two domains (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Frone et al., (1997) later refined this model by defining distal and proximal antecedents to each type of conflict and adding role-related outcomes. These founding models serve as a solid base for the current work-family conflict literature (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Indeed, the original conflict models had such as profound impact on work-family literature, that work-family research has been dominated by the role-conflict perspective for several decades, contributing to near-exclusivity in how we conceptualize and study the work-family interface (Kossek et al., 2011a; Shockley & Singla, 2011). This exclusivity is a problem when trying to study populations, such as low-income

workers, that are different than traditionally studied populations, and therefore not likely to experience the same work-family interface.

The founding models of conflict define domain-specific antecedents and outcomes to work-family conflict, with conflict as a mediator for cross-domain effects (Frone et al., 1992; Frone et al., 1997; Kopelman et al., 1983). In other words, the constructs are defined as specifically related to either work or family domains (e.g. job satisfaction, family satisfaction, work stressors, and family stressors). Antecedents from one domain are expected to have a stronger impact on the alternative domain outcomes, rather than the same domain's outcomes (Frone et al., 1992; Frone et al., 1997). Using this cross-domain model, work antecedents, such as support and stressors, would have a much stronger impact on family outcomes, such as family satisfaction and performance, than on work outcomes, such as work satisfaction and performance (Frone et al., 1992; Frone et al., 1997).

Recently, researchers have begun to question the traditional crossover main effect model. Meta-analytical results indicate the originating conflict domain has the strongest impact on same domain outcomes, rather than cross-domain outcomes; in other words, conflict

originating in the work (or family) domain will have the biggest direct impact on work (or family) outcomes rather than family (or work) outcomes (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Shockley & Singla, 2011). These same-domain results support an opposing model: support source attribution effects (Amstad et al., 2011; Shockley & Singla, 2011). For example, lack of work support may lead to conflict, which the individual blames on work and therefore performs their work at a lower standard than their typical performance level. The distinction between cross-domain effects and same-domain effects is important because they outline different antecedent-consequence relationships that will likely change both research and practical work-family intervention outcomes (Shockley & Singla, 2011). Unfortunately, meta-analyses examining the issue of cross-domain versus same-domain effects recognize economic background as an important moderator, but do not test its effects due to lack of studies reporting sample economic characteristics (Amstad et al., 2011). Perhaps it is this lack of population consideration that contributes to differentiating results supporting either model.

The idea of separate work and family domain-specific constructs, which is inherent for both approaches, is problematic for studying low-income populations. While

there are some work and family-specific constructs outlined in current low-income literature, such as supervisor support or single-parent family status, many constructs do not fit neatly into these two domains. For example, in traditional models, increased work demands such as number of working hours, results in increased conflict between work and family (Michel et al., 2010). However, because low-income parents see working hours as a necessity for caring for the family and therefore part of fulfilling the family role (Hennessy, 2009), there may not be a relationship between increased working hours and increased conflict.

Another limitation of current models is the lack of consideration given to population-specific constructs and variables incorporated into current models. Previous researchers have called for more specific consideration of population differences in existing work-family models (Agars & French, 2011; Allen et al., 2000). Not all characteristics of the work-family interface, such as transportation and lack of amenities, fit neatly into our existing domain-specific models; therefore, models that guide research and measure construction are lacking in their applicability to low-income populations. In order to make these models more applicable, researchers would need

to conceptually and operationally define population characteristics, such as the unique support methods of impression management or structural characteristics such as lack of transportation, and incorporate them into our models and measures.

Work-Family Conflict Measures

First it is important to understand the basic format of work-family measures. Conflict measures are typically paper and pencil survey instruments, which ask respondents to indicate the degree to which one domain interferes with the other domain (Casper et al., 2007; MacDermid, 2005). Response formats are typically Likert scales with 5 or 7 points, typically using agree/disagree anchors (Carlson et al., 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kopelman et al., 1983; MacDermid, 2005; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). However the alternatively used, always/never anchors may be superior because they are less ambiguous (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Researchers typically use Cronbach's alpha to estimate reliability, with results ranging from .73 to .84 (MacDermid, 2005). Several researchers have pointed out flaws inherent to existing work-family measures, including utilizing solely self-report methodology, relying on memory recall, and inconsistency in the length, anchors, psychometrics, and level of rigorous development

(Allen et al., 2000; Bellavia & Frone, 2005; MacDermid, 2005; McMillan, Morris, & Atchley, 2010; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

More importantly for the current study, work-family conflict measures are inconsistent in their underlying conceptual definition of conflict itself (Carlson et al., 2000). As formerly established, work-family conflict is a multi-dimensional construct including two directions of conflict (work-family and family-work) as well as three forms of conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based) (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Although most measures include both work-family and family-work conflict directions, not all distinguish both directions. Distinguishing directionality is essential because the direction of conflict has been shown to produce differential outcomes (Byron, 2005; Mesmer-Mangus & Viswesvaran, 2005). In addition, very few measures distinguish between each form of conflict (time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based) (McMillan et al., 2010), and only Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams' (2000) measure includes both directions as well as all three forms of conflict. This variability in underlying conceptual definitions of work-family conflict is problematic for

comparability of studies and the validity of results (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Although including the three forms is most consistent with Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) originating conceptualization of work-family conflict, the necessity of including all three forms of conflict has been debated (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Items assessing forms of conflict are double-barreled because they include both an antecedent (time, strain, or behavior) as well as the occurrence of conflict itself (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). In addition, items that measure forms of conflict contain built-in causal attributions, creating inflated relationships between antecedents and consequences (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Finally, measures vary in specificity; some items are extremely specific, focusing on particular antecedents or consequences of conflict, while more global measures assess overall levels of conflict (Allen et al., 2000). These different levels of analysis make it difficult to compare studies and draw appropriate conclusions from existing literature (Allen et al., 2000).

As previously established, the work-family conflict construct definition is deficient for capturing the work-family interface in low-income populations; therefore, measures based on conflict are questionable for

use in low-income populations. Typical scales measure either work-family or family-work directionality, consistent with theoretical and meta-analytical results (Byron, 2005; Frone et al., 1992; Mesmer-Mangus & Viswesvaran, 2005). However, some low-income issues, such as transportation, cannot be captured in simply work-family or family-work conflict items. Transportation is not an issue that originates in either the work or family domains, and it impacts the worker's ability to meet both work and family demands, not simply one or the other. Therefore, it could not be neatly categorized as either a work-family or family-work conflict issue. In addition, the double-barreled items based on time, strain, and behavior-based conflict assume relationships between antecedents and consequences that may not be valid for low-income populations. For example, one item asks whether pressures at work prevent engagement in enjoyable activities (Carlson et al., 2000). For low-income working parents, enjoyable activities are more of a luxury than a common occurrence, despite pressures at work due to limited resources, rendering this item potentially confusing and invalid for low-income populations (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). Finally, because items are typically developed on higher income, white-collar samples

(Carlson et al., 2000; Grahame, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 1996), specific conflict items are likely to be inaccurate for capturing the different issues faced by low-income working parents. Conflict theory's deficiency for capturing the low-income work-family interface combined with inconsistent use of underlying theory to develop measures points to an important conclusion that lies at the heart of this study: the validity of current scales used to measure work-family conflict is highly questionable, particularly for low-income populations whose work-family issues are not even clearly applicable to the underlying conflict theory.

For the current study, I will examine Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian's (1996) measure of work-family conflict. This measure is commonly used throughout the literature and is considered superior to many conflict measures due to its rigorous development and validation (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Although Netemeyer et al., (1996) used three samples to develop and test conflict items, these samples consisted of teachers and administrators, small business owners, and real estate salespeople. These samples are clearly higher-income, white collar positions, raising questions as to whether or not the measure is valid for more diverse populations,

including low-income individuals. At the conclusion of the article Netemeyer et al., (1996) recognized this limitation, suggesting future validation studies using more diverse and unique populations. To my knowledge, this suggestion has not been addressed.

The Netemeyer et al., (1996) measure is based on Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) definition of work family conflict. The measure captures both directions of conflict, but only two forms of conflict, time and strain-based, as well as demands from work and family domains. Demands include responsibilities, requirements, expectations, duties, and commitments posed by a particular demand (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Specific items have questionable applicability for low-income populations, exemplifying issues discussed in the previous literature review. For example, one work-family conflict item states, "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities" (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 410). Because low-income parents view working as a part of fulfilling family responsibilities (Hennessy, 2009), this item is likely to be invalid for measuring the low-income work-family interface. It is important to note a few items do appear to be adequate for capturing low-income work-family issues. The work-family

conflict item "Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities" conceptually fits with low-income families' difficulty arranging childcare due to work responsibilities; however, this is assuming the respondent thinks of arranging childcare as a family activity.

Overall, this review of the conflict theory and measurement literature provides a basis of knowledge for evaluating work-family conflict measures, specifically Netemeyer et al., (1996)'s work-family conflict measure. While conflict is the dominant model for examining the work-family interface, there have been calls for more consideration of the positive side of the work-family interface (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). In accordance with this call and for a more comprehensive study of current work-family theories and measures, this study will also evaluate the commensurability of work-family enrichment within low-income populations.

Work-Family Enrichment

Enrichment is defined as the "extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life, namely performance or affect, in the other role" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). Within the work-family

literature, there are several concepts used to describe the positive work-family interface, such as enrichment, enhancement, positive spillover, and facilitation (Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006; Shockley & Singla, 2011). There has been some past debate as to whether or not these are distinct constructs, or simply synonymic names for the same latent construct (McMillan et al., 2010). However, recent research has defined these constructs as distinct and therefore the present study will examine literature and measures specifically examining enrichment rather than alternative positive work-family constructs (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007).

Until recently, enrichment, and the positive side of the work-family interface in general, has received much less attention than conflict within the work-family literature (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Shockley & Singla, 2011). As a result, there are fewer existing studies focusing on enrichment, and no studies to my knowledge focusing on enrichment within low-income populations. By examining the definition of enrichment, we can see how low-income populations may describe their experiences in terms of enrichment. Low-income parents depend on resources, such as financial

gain obtained from the work domain, to improve their performance as a parent by providing basic needs for their children (Breitkreuz et al., 2010). However, enrichment, like conflict, is an incomplete depiction of the low-income work-family interface. For example, although financial gains obtained in the work domain are used to improve performance in the family domains, these gains are often limited and inadequate due to child care costs. Despite the resources gained by working, low-income single parents would often be more financially stable by opting not to work and instead collecting welfare to support the family (Breitkreuz et al., 2010).

Work-Family Enrichment Models

Work-family enrichment has its roots in Sieber's (1974) theory of role accumulation as well as Marks' (1977) expansionist approach. The theory of role accumulation was one of the first to question the conflict approach and suggest that multiple roles may be beneficial and provide role gains that outweigh negative outcomes (Sieber, 1974). The expansionist approach similarly proposes multiple roles provide expanded resources to help manage the additional roles, such as income, support, self-complexity, and expanded frame of reference (Marks, 1977; Warner & Hausdorf, 2009).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) developed the first model of work-family enrichment. They proposed roles provide resources, specifically skills and perspectives, social capital, flexibility, material resources, and psychological and physical resources, which assist problems or situations (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McMillan et al., 2010). These role resources are interdependent and can therefore enhance one another, resulting ultimately in improved quality of life as defined by high positive affect and role performance. Resources from one domain impacts performance and affect in the other through two paths: instrumental and affective (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The instrumental path is when resources directly impact performance in the alternative domain. In contrast, the affective path occurs when resources indirectly impact performance in the alternative domain through positive affect; resources from one domain increase affect, which in turn increases performance in the alternative domain (Carlson et al., 2006; McMillan et al., 2010). Positive affect increases domain performance by increasing helping behaviors, outward focused orientation, and expanded energy (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Similar to conflict theory, enrichment is bi-directional and there have been debates as to whether these effects are cross-domain or

within the same domain (Carlson et al., 2006; Shockley & Singla, 2011). As with conflict theory, the most recent research indicates same-domain effects are stronger than cross-domain effects for enrichment (McNall et al., 2010).

We can examine how well enrichment captures the work-family interface in low-income populations based on the qualitative literature. As I previously mentioned, not all resources included in enrichment theory are available to low-income populations. For example, low-income populations utilize social capital to obtain informal child care arrangements, thereby freeing time to perform in the work setting (Weigt & Solomon, 2008). However, low-income employees' work environment is inflexible and offers little formal support, therefore failing to provide enrichment resources commonly allotted to higher income workers (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Grahame, 2003; Heymann et al., 2006). The two paths also incompletely capture the work-family interface for low-income populations. Both paths are valid to some degree; for instance, financial gain from work directly impacts ability to provide for the family, a component of performance in the family domain. Similarly, the positive self-perceptions low-income single mothers experience may increase affect, which then improves their performance as mothers and role models.

However, it is unclear how some characteristics, such as childcare, would fit into these paths. Although the informal childcare arrangements utilized by low-income parents are less-than-ideal for obtaining and maintaining employment (Udansky & Wolf, 2008), childcare is nevertheless essential for low-income working parents. Childcare is a family domain resource that helps them to perform in the work domain, yet it does not clearly fit into either enrichment path. Childcare does not directly improve performance on the job, and childcare does not necessarily improve affect. This is a key challenge differentiating low-income childcare from middle and upper class childcare. Middle and upper class working parents can afford reliable and quality childcare where they know their child can regularly receive care and safety, thus childcare is a tool used to help facilitate enrichment. However, low-income childcare is often not reliable or safe, possibly hindering work performance as well as family performance (Udansky & Wolf, 2008; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). From this example we can see childcare as a family domain resource is clearly essential for successful work domain performance, yet conceptually it does not quite fit in either path laid out by Greenhaus & Powell's (2006) enrichment model within low-income populations.

Work-Family Enrichment Measures

The scales used to measure the positive work-family interface are similar to conflict measures and therefore have the same characteristics and inherent criticisms as previously discussed in the conflict measures section (MacDermid, 2005). Consistent with work-family conflict measures, enrichment measures also lack conceptual clarity and consistency, particularly given the debate and confusion as to whether or not the positive work-family constructs are distinct (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McMillan et al., 2010). This conceptual confusion layered on top of a potential misfit between low-income characteristics and the theory of enrichment leads us to the same conclusion drawn in the conflict section: measurement tools used for enrichment are likely inadequate for capturing the work-family interface in low-income populations.

Carlson and her colleagues (2006) created the first validated measure of enrichment. Prior to the development and validation of this scale, enrichment measures were typically built on the construct of positive work-family spillover, which fails to distinguish whether or not performance was actually improved as a result of the transfer of resources (Carlson et al., 2006). Carlson's

measure was conceptually based on Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) definition of work-family enrichment, and therefore takes into account the multi-dimensionality and bidirectionality of enrichment. Although the conceptual foundation is questionable for measuring enrichment in low-income populations, this measure's rigorous development and validation makes it a psychometrically superior tool for measuring work-family enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006). For these reasons, I chose examine on Carlson's measure for the current research study.

The Carlson et al., (2006) measure of work-family enrichment was rigorously developed on the conceptual foundation laid by Greenhaus and Powell (2006). To develop the measure, items were generated from previous scales, enrichment literature, and personal anecdotes. Throughout a series of four studies, the researchers developed, refined, and validated the work-family conflict measure to ensure its validity and reliability. However, these studies all utilized student and faculty populations (Carlson et al., 2006). Student populations, which were used for validation, are typically unmarried, childless, and less meaningfully connected to the labor force than typical working parents. Furthermore, because they are attending a University, it is less likely these students

would not fall within low-income population boundaries. Therefore, like the Netemeyer et al., (1996) scale, this measure needs further validation using more diverse populations. Items on the Carlson et al., (2006) scale confirm previous speculation about the incomplete applicability of work-family enrichment to the low-income work-family interface. Some items are applicable to low-income work-family challenges, such as the work-family enrichment item, "My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment, and this helps me to be a better family member" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 147). This could clearly map on to the concept of work providing personal fulfillment and exemplifying a positive role model for children. However, the family-work enrichment item "My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me to be a better worker" is less valid for low-income populations (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 147). While knowledge could potentially be an important intrinsic transferred resource, existing research indicates low-income workers are more motivated by extrinsic resources, such as having financial means to support their family, rather than intrinsic resources such as knowledge (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Hennessy, 2009)

Work-Family Culture

Work-family supportive culture and workplace support in general are common and critical variables to understanding the impact of work-family conflict and enrichment (Allen, 2001; Frone et al., 1997; Michel et al., 2010; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Work-family supportive culture has been shown to have a direct negative relationship with conflict as well as direct and indirect effects on conflict outcomes such as commitment, satisfaction, turnover intentions, and work distress (Allen, 2001; Frone et al., 1997; Major, Fletcher, Davis, & Germano, 2008; Thompson et al., 1999).

Thompson et al., (1999) defined work-family supportive culture as "shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (p. 394). Work-family supportive culture is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of three components: expectations about time demands and prioritization of work and family, perceived negative career consequences if the individual devotes time to the family, and managerial support and sensitivity to the family role (Thompson et al., 1999). These three

components are impacted by both formal organizational policy as well as informal support interactions.

Work-family policies are services the organization provides to help employees manage multiple role responsibilities (Allen, 2011). These policies are unique from other Human Resources policies because they are sometimes subject to negative outcomes and backlash, their use and perceptions can vary with different organizational cultures, and there is often differential implementation within and between organizations (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). For example, managers may not be very receptive to paternity leave because it requires extra work to fulfill the position, and organizations may not offer extra help or transfers to facilitate use of paternity leave. These conditions would perhaps lead the manager to not advertise the benefit of paternity leave or even subtly punish those who take paternity leave by withholding opportunities or bonuses. However, alternative organizations or managers may be well supported, and accommodate and encourage their employees to utilize paternity leave with their well-being and satisfaction in mind.

Organizations can offer a wide variety of work-family policies to help individuals accommodate and participate in multiple roles. The most frequently offered and studied

interventions adjust working time or location, so the individual can shape their work schedule around family responsibilities (LaPierre & Allen, 2006; Thompson et al., 1999). Such policies include flextime, paid time off, leaves of absence, and telecommuting (Allen, 2001; Friedman, 2001; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Organizations also offer support by providing caregiving or health benefits such as on-site childcare, child care referrals, or gym memberships (McCarthy et al., 2010; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Less commonly, organizations offer monetary assistance, such as a stipend for childcare or elder care costs (Friedman, 2001; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Finally, some employers offer information or support through counseling referrals or information on how to manage work and family roles (Friedman, 2001; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). The government also offers assistance through the Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA) and the Personal Responsibility and Work Reconciliation Act of 1996 (PRWORA) (Grahame, 2003). The Family Medical Leave Act protects the jobs of workers who must take unpaid leave from their work to care for themselves or a family member who is sick. Alternatively, PRWORA provides welfare to low-income workers to supplement their income and help support their families (Grahame, 2003).

Research on the outcomes of formal work-family policies draw mixed conclusions (Mesmer-Mangus & Viswesvaran, 2005) The outcomes of formal work-family policies vary due to different outcomes used to measure policy effectiveness, diverse policy implementation, perceptions and possible stigma around policy utilization, instrumental and emotional support for the employees affected by policy use, quality of communication regarding policy use and availability, and methodologically problematic study design including cross-sectional designs and sampling issues (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Brough & O'Driscoll, 2010; Kossek, 2005; Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Research has found positive benefits for both the employee as well as the organization including improved morale, satisfaction, commitment, performance, bottom line profits, recruitment, and retention (Friedman, 2001; Allen, 2001; Kossek, 2005; Ryan & Kossek, 2008; Thompson et al., 1999). Additional research has found work-family policies reduce fatigue, stress, illness, absenteeism, and work-family conflict (Friedman, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999).

As with conflict and enrichment, the previously discussed traditional research on work-family supportive policies is based on white-collar, middle class

populations. Research on low-income populations reveals formal work and family policies are less prevalent among industries and positions occupied by low-income workers (Heymann et al., 2006; Weigt & Solomon, 2008). More specifically, professional and technical professions are twice as likely as clerical and sales professions and five times as likely as blue collar professions to receive childcare assistance (Kossek, 2005). In addition, professional and technical workers are more likely than clerical, sales, or blue collar workers to receive long term care insurance and flexible work schedules (Kossek, 2005). Friedman (2001) found similar results; workers earning less than $7.70 per hour were significantly less likely to have access to work-family benefits, revealing those who arguably needed the most formal support were the least likely to receive it. Therefore, although work-family policy research has shown potential benefit for both the employee and the organization, low-income workers simply do not have access to these traditionally studied policies, rendering current policy research largely irrelevant.

Furthermore, government policy, such as FMLA and PRWORA, incompletely addresses concerns faced by low-income workers. For example, FMLA preserves one's job

in case of family illness or pregnancy; however, low-income individuals cannot afford to use this policy because the covered leave is unpaid. This is particularly problematic in common low-income single-parent households where the adult needing time off is the sole breadwinner (Grahame, 2003). Similarly, PRWORA provides welfare to low-income workers; however, to receive assistance the recipient must be employed. Because work is necessary to receive assistance, low-income parents are often under pressure to find any job available, which is often an inflexible shift work position with low pay that is incongruent with family demands (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Grahame, 2003). In addition, due to childcare and transportation costs, it is sometimes more expensive for low-income individuals to work and receive assistance than it is for them to not work and forgo the extra expenses (Grahame, 2003). From these examples, we can see government policy inadequately addresses low-income work and family needs and instead perpetuates problematic issues such as lack of resources, income, and inflexible and demanding positions with little upward mobility.

Workplace social support is when the organization and its members are supportive of employee well-being and multiple role responsibilities (Kossek et al., 2011b). In

a recent meta-analysis, Kossek and her colleagues found workplace support specifically targeted to accommodating work and family roles helps to buffer the negative impact of work-family conflict. One of the most commonly studied and important source of support is supervisor support (Kossek et al., 2011b; LaPierre & Allen, 2006). Supervisor support is when a supervisor helps employees to accommodate and address role responsibilities (Allen, 2001). Work-family support, including supervisor support, has several positive outcomes for organizations and individuals including increased satisfaction, commitment, and well-being as well as decreased work-family conflict, turnover, and role time demands (Allen, 2001; LaPierre & Allen, 2006; McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady, 2010; Michel et al., 2010; Thompson et al., 1999).

Because supervisors have frequent and immediate interactions with employees, supervisor support is critical for work-family supportive culture as well as the interpretation and use of formal work-family policies (Thompson et al., 1999; Allen, 2001; McCarthy et al., 2010). Supervisors often implement formal policies, and can influence employee perceptions and use of these policies (Kossek, 2005; McCarthy et al., 2010). If supervisors are supportive, fostering a work-family

supportive culture, employees will feel more comfortable using benefits, further developing a work-family supportive culture and positive outcomes such as well-being (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). Supervisors therefore serve as the gatekeepers to policy use, communicating the organization's views on whether and how to use work-family policy as well as the organization's acceptance and accommodation of alternative role responsibilities (Muse & Pichler, In Press).

Because low-income workers rely primarily on informal employer support, culture and support literature is likely to be more relevant to understanding the employer's role in shaping the work-family interface. Muse and Pichler (In Press) recently examined work-family support within lower skilled workers. Consistent with the previously cited literature, they concluded social support is an effective buffer for work-family conflict for lower skilled workers, leading to improved well-being and performance. Additionally, they found social support is a critical and realistic resource for lower skilled workers because they have limited access to the formal policies more commonly available to higher skilled workers. The conceptual overlap between the low-income work-family interface and culture and support literature is also apparent when we

examine Thompson et al.'s (1999) three components of work-family culture (expectations about time demands and prioritization of work and family, perceived negative career consequences if the individual devotes time to the family, and managerial support and sensitivity to the family role). Firstly, low-income employers are likely to still care about dedicating working time to the family. A qualitative study by Hennessy (2009) indicates employers of low-income workers can be inflexible and intolerant of using work time for family responsibilities. However, Weigt & Solomon (2008) also found employees can change employer's expectations through impression management. Secondly, while low-income workers are not necessarily working towards a career, it is often essential they have income and maintain employment. Therefore, they will likely be sensitive to any perceived negative consequences from devoting time to the family that could threaten their employment. Lastly, as previously discussed, the employer-employee relationship is a highly valued resource for managing the low-income work-family interface in low-income populations (Muse & Pichler, In Press; Weigt & Solomon, 2008).

Current work-family research has shown work-family culture and support are critical to shaping the work and

family interface. Based on low-income research indicating informal support is the most accessible and utilized type of work-family support mechanism, it is likely this construct will remain relevant for low-income positions, perhaps even more so than higher income positions. However, due to the inaccessibility of formal work-family supports, work-family policy is less relevant for determining work and family outcomes.

Work-family culture and support has been studied as both an antecedent as well as a moderator to work-family conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). However, recent reviews and meta-analyses conclude culture and support are best studied as antecedents to conflict as well as enrichment (Bianchi, 2010; Kossek et al., 2011b ; Michel et al., 2010). Work-family organizational and supervisor support reduce work-family conflict both directly and indirectly through the perceptions of stressors (Kossek et al., 2011b; Michel et al., 2010). In addition, as discussed above, the work-family supportive culture mediates policy perceptions and use (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Therefore, when testing construct validity, the current study will include work-family supportive culture as an antecedent to work-family conflict as well as an antecedent to work-family enrichment. I also propose work-family policy

use and perceptions will indirectly impact work-family conflict and work-family enrichment through work-family supportive culture.

To measure work-family culture I will utilize Thompson et al.,'s (1999) culture scale. This scale is comprised of three components, expectations about time demands and prioritization of work and family, perceived negative career consequences if the individual devotes time to the family, and managerial support and sensitivity to the family role, and is used in conjunction with a benefit availability and utilization scale. I expect these questions will be relevant to low-income workers because each component is conceptually relevant for low-income populations, as formerly described. However, like the previous measures, this work-family culture measure was also built using academic and white collar samples, in particular Master's level students and managerial and professional employees. Therefore, additional validation in underrepresented populations is needed. The benefit availability/utilization measure is a list of 19 programs or policies, such as flextime and on-site childcare, which are typically unavailable to low-income workers. Due to the lack of availability of formal work-family programs and research indicating low-income workers rely on

informal work-family support, the benefit availability/utilization measure is likely to be less relevant for determining work-family conflict and enrichment in the context of the present study.

Present Study

The purpose of the present study is to examine the commensurability and validity of work-family conflict, enrichment, and culture measures within low-income populations. From the previous literature discussion, it is evident each of these work-family constructs is deficient in and of itself for capturing the low-income work-family interface. Once again, this study is novel in its exploration of commensurability for low-income populations and relies on speculation between comparing traditional work-family literature with literature focusing on low-income workers and families. Therefore, I have no specific hypotheses. Instead this research is guided by the primary question: are work and family measures of conflict, enrichment, and culture valid for low-income populations?

To address the answer to this question, I examined psychometric properties of existing work-family constructs including measurement structure and construct validity.

Additional variables related to conflict, enrichment, and culture include job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Figure 1 provides a model of relationships between conflict, culture, and the additional related variables. Figure 2 provides a model of relationships between enrichment, culture, and the additional related variables. These figures are based on individual as well as meta-analytical findings within the traditional work-family literature (Allen et al., 2000; Allen, 2001; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Frone et al., 1997; Frone et al., 1992; Kossek et al., 2011b; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Mangus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Michel et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011; Thompson et al., 1999). Due to differential support for domain-specific and cross-domain effects (McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011), the model reflects both perspectives and therefore predicts both directions, work-family and family-work, will be related to all outcomes.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

I collected data from 307 participants. All responses were then screened to ensure they qualified for the study. In order to qualify, respondents must live in low-income households, which was defined as 200% of the poverty level (Bernstein, 2004). Because low-income participants were specifically targeted in recruitment for the study, individuals who failed to report income were also included. To recruit participants, I worked with Catholic Charities to distribute surveys to clients utilizing Catholic Charities' services. Catholic Charities provides services to low-income members of the community; therefore, any clients can be assumed to have incomes below the poverty line. I also collected surveys through Kindercare, personal contacts, and using student snowball samples, in which students were asked to have the survey completed by a community member who would qualify for the study. No identifying information was collected on participants, aside from descriptive demographics data. In order to participate, respondents must have lived in low-income households as well as speak and understand

English. Employment was not a requirement for the study; individuals were removed from the data set if they were unemployed students, and non-student unemployed participants were asked to think of their last work experience when responding to the items in the study.

Participant demographic data including age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital/relationship status, income, parental status, occupation type and level, tenure, and spousal/partner employment status are reported in Table 1.

Procedure

Participants for this study have limited income and resources, and therefore are unlikely to have access to a computer and the internet. Therefore, I provided paper surveys to respondents. Clients were provided with survey packets containing an informed consent form that describes the studies' purpose as well as possible risks and benefits. The directions for the study contained no deception, and participants experienced minimal risk and no immediate benefits for participating in the study. Survey items included all the measures listed below, as well as the demographics survey. It took respondents approximately 20-30 minutes to complete the entire survey. At the conclusion of the packet there was a debriefing form for the participants thanking them for their

participation as well as reiterating the purpose of the study and providing future contact information for results. I collected survey packets from respondents and students relaying the survey 1-2 weeks after distribution.

Measures

Work-Family Conflict. The Netemeyer et al., (1996) Work-Family Conflict and Family-Work Conflict scales were used to measure both work-family and family-work conflict. Each scale uses five items to measure its specific direction of work-family conflict. Participants indicate their level of agreement with the items on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 indicates *strongly disagree* and 7 indicates *strongly agree*. Lower scores indicate lower levels of conflict. Sample work-family conflict items from the scale include, "My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties" and "The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities". Sample family-work conflict items from the scale include, "My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime" and "Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties". In their original study, Netemeyer et al., (1996) reported an alpha coefficient of

.82. In the current study, the alpha coefficient for this measure is .92.

Work-Family Enrichment. Carlson et al.'s (2006) enrichment scale was used for the present study to measure work-family and family-work enrichment. This scale measures both work-family and family-work enrichment using 18 items, 9 items for each direction. In addition, each direction is broken into 3 factors, work-family/family-work development (skills and knowledge), work-family/family-work affect (positive emotional state), work-family capital (psychological gains such as self-esteem and security), and family-work effectiveness (involvement with family provides a sense of focus or urgency which helps the individual to be a better worker) which were developed through exploratory factor analysis. The measure has a total number of 6 factors, three per each direction, with three items measuring each factor. Participants are given the sentence stem, "My involvement in my work _____" before the 9 items measuring work-family enrichment. The same stem is used for the 9 family-work items, except "work" is replace with "family". Respondents rated their level of agreement with each item on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 representing *strongly disagree* and 5 representing *strongly agree*. Lower

scores indicated lower levels of enrichment. Sample work-family enrichment items included, "helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member" (development), "makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member" (affect), and "provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member" (capital). Sample family-work enrichment items included, "helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker" (development), "makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker" (affect), and "encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker" (capital). Carlson et al., (2006) found a coefficient alpha of .92 for the entire scale with the following factor coefficients: work-family development = .73, work-family affect = .91, work-family capital = .90, family-work development = .87, family-work affect = .84, family-work efficiency = .82, all work-family items = .92, and all family-work items = .86. In the current study, this measure had a reliability coefficient of .95 for the entire scale with the following factor coefficients: work-family development = .92, work-family affect = .95, work-family capital = .93, family-work development = .91, family-work

affect = .95, family-work efficiency = .91, all work-family items = .94, and all family-work items = .94.

Work-Family Culture. Work-family culture was measured using the 21-item scale developed by Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999). Items reflect overall organization facilitation efforts, managerial support, negative consequences associated with spending time with the family, and time demands, and expectations imposed by the organization. Respondents indicated how much the item describes their organization on a 7 point *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* scale, with higher scores indicating a more supportive work-family culture. Some items were negatively worded and therefore will need to be recoded for the final culture score. Thompson et al., (1999) reported a coefficient alpha of .92. In the current study, the scale had a reliability coefficient of .88. Sample items include, "Employees are often expected to take work at home at night and/or on weekends", "Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families", and "In this organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime".

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

(MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, & England, 1967). This questionnaire assesses both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert scale with 20 different job aspects. The scale ranges from *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*, with higher scores indicating more satisfaction. All job aspects are preceded by the stem "On my present job, this is how I feel about". Sample items included "Being able to keep busy all the time", "The chance to try my own methods of doing the job", and "The chance to do things for other people". Median reliability coefficients of .86, .80, and .90 were reported in the original MSQ manual for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction, respectively. We found coefficient alphas of .90, .87, and .68 for intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction.

Work-Family Benefit Availability and Use. To measure work-family benefit availability and use, participants were provided a list of 10 work-family benefits utilized in Allen (2001). The list contained flexible work arrangements, including flextime, compressed work week, telecommuting, and part-time work, and dependent care supports, including on-site child care centers, subsidized local child care, child care information/referral services, paid maternity leave, paid paternity leave, and elder care. Participants were asked to indicate both which

benefits are available to them as well as whether they are currently or have in the past utilized these benefits. Items were coded as either 0 (not available or not used) or 1 (available or used/using). The total benefits available score will be calculated as the sum of all 10 items measuring availability; the total benefits used score will also be calculated by summing all 10 items measuring benefit use.

Family Satisfaction

Family satisfaction was measured using Kopelman et al., (1983)'s three item measure of family satisfaction, which was adapted from the short version of Hackman & Oldham's (1975) General Job Staisfaction scale. Reponses to each item were on a seven point *agree/disagree* scale, where one represents *disagree strongly* and seven represents *agree strongly*, with higher scores indicating more satisfaction. Items include, "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my family", "I am generally satisfied with the work I do for my family", and "I frequently think I would like to change my family situation". The latter item will be reverse-coded. The alpha coefficient for this scale is .90; for the current study, we found a coefficient alpha of .45.

Turnover Intentions. Four items from Mitchel (1981) were used to measure turnover intentions. Items were assessed on a five point *not accurate at all/extremely accurate* response scale, with higher levels indicating more accuracy. Sample items included, "I plan to be with the company quite a while" and "I plan to be with the company five years from now". The reliability coefficient for this scale was .64; in the current study the coefficient alpha was .71.

Demographics. The demographics survey included items assessing age, gender, race/ethnicity, income, parental status, marital/relationship status, occupational status, tenure, and spousal/partner occupational status.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Analytical Strategy

The analytic strategy for the current study aims to test and determine the commensurability and construct validity of measures of work-family conflict, enrichment, and culture. I first ran confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs). Because conflict, enrichment, and culture are three of the primary variables for this research, and because I had literature-based research raising doubts as to whether or not these measures will be commensurate, I ran a CFA for conflict, enrichment, and culture separately. Next, I ran three separate exploratory factor analyses for each measrue to determine the data-driven factor structure in order to compare this with the original factor structure and CFA results. Independent of these results, I also tested the construct validity of each measure by analyzing the structural equation models in Figures 1 and 2, which are based on current literature findings. I tested the original factor structures, because the purpose of the study is to determine the validity of the existing measures. Revising the measures based on CFA and EFA results would create additional ambiguity around

possible misfit for the model. By testing the original factor structures, I kept the integrity of the measure in-tact and therefore had a cleaner and clearer test of the measures if used as traditionally defined for low-income populations.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The first stage of analysis consists of three separate confirmatory factor analysis for the conflict, enrichment, and culture scales. Prior to analysis, all data was cleaned and screened for data entry errors, normality, outliers, patterned responses, multicollinearity, and linearity. Frequencies and histograms were used to detect data entry errors as well as screen for normality and univariate outliers. Outliers were defined as both discontinuous and more than 3.5 standard deviations from the mean. The data were also scanned for patterned responses. Multicollinearity was examined using a correlation matrix with all the variables of interest and tolerance statistics. Multicollinearity was defined as univariate correlations greater than .90 and tolerance statistics less than .10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Finally, linearity was examined using scatterplots. Because several variables were utilized in the study, only three scatterplots were spot-checked using

the most skewed variables in the data set, which were the most likely to demonstrate curvilinear relationships (Tachnick & Fidell, 2007). After correcting data entry errors, none of the assumptions were violated for the variables of interest in the study.

Each scale was examined through separate confirmatory factor analysis using EQS 6.1 (Bentler, 2005, Multivariate Software, Inc.). For each scale, the variance of the highest-order factor was set to 1 to allow each factor to vary freely, and the remaining factors were scaled by constraining their corresponding items with the strongest predicted loadings to 1. For the conflict measure, a secondary model was computed, with work-to-family and family-to-work conflict as the first-order factors and total work-family conflict as the second-order factor, because each factor represents the underlying construct of total work-family conflict. For the enrichment measure, a tertiary model was computed with six first-order factors, two second-order factors (work-to-family and family-to-work), and one third-order factor (total work-family enrichment). Finally, because the culture measure is intended as a measure of a single construct, a secondary model was also computed, with three first-order factors (manager support, organizational time demands, and

career consequences) and one overall culture factor. Wald and LeGrange statistics were also requested for more in-depth analysis and insights into possible changes that should be made to the factor structure.

The fit indices for each of the confirmatory factor analyses are presented in Table 2. From these statistics, we can see both conflict and enrichment had a good structure fit; however, culture had a very poor structure fit. To improve the conflict measure, the LeGrange statistics suggested estimating the covariance between factors. To improve upon the culture measure, the LeGrange results suggested there were cross loadings and high correlations between error terms, and the Wald results suggested dropping one item (item 15) from the measure, as it did not contribute to either statistical or practical significance of the measure and failed to load. Although both the conflict and enrichment measures had indices that indicate good fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), both of these measures had parameters with linear dependency, and the LeGrange statistics suggested adding crossloadings and covariance between error terms to obtain a more stable fit. Measurement models displaying factor loadings as well as statistical and practical significance for the

conflict, enrichment, and culture measures are presented in Figures 3, 4, and 5, respectively.

The results of the CFAs warranted further exploration. Because this is an exploratory study to investigate how work-family measures behave when used in low-income populations, exploratory factor analyses are useful for determining the data-driven structure of each measure. Clearly an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was necessary to determine the data-driven structure of the culture measure due to poor CFA fit. Although the conflict and enrichment measures had good fit, they failed to reach stable convergence and the LeGrange statistics suggested there may be multiple crossloadings. Therefore, for the next phase of analysis, EFAs were conducted on each of the three measures.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted for each of the three measures of interest: conflict, enrichment, and culture. Principle axis factoring and oblique rotation were used because only shared variance is of interest and factors in each scale are expected to be related to one another. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant confirming that each measure's items shared sufficient variance. Furthermore, communalities confirmed

shared variance'of each measure; the conflict measure communalities ranged from .545 to .754, the enrichment measure communalities ranged from .705 to .883, and the culture measure communalities ranged from .212 to .728. These communalities largely reflect and shed some light on CFA results. The conflict and enrichment scales have high levels of shared variance, indicating there may be little distinction between items, which could contribute to good factor fit in the CFA. Furthermore, the poor communalities for the culture scale could at least partially explain the poor fit for the CFA, although interestingly poor communalities (< .03) are found for items 6 and 9, which both loaded well in the CFA. To interpret the following results, items were adequately loaded if they loaded on only one factor (less than .20 apart from another factor) and had loading values of at least .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 3 displays the number of factors found for each scale, eigenvalues, and variance explained by each factor. Scree plots were also examined to visually confirm eigenvalue results. According to these results, the conflict measure separated into two factors as expected and explained a good amount of variance, with approximately equal eigenvalues, indicating the factors

explain approximately equal variance. Original scale items and factors are presented in Table 4. When looking at the conflict pattern matrix and factor correlations (Table 5), we can see the conflict items factored out into their appropriate work-to-family and family-to-work factors and that the factors are strongly correlated, as expected. This strong correlation between factors matches up with CFA LeGrange suggestions to estimate the covariance between factors to obtain a better fit for the measurement model. There is also one crossloaded item in the scale (FW6) that could partially account for lack of fit.

The enrichment measure factored into four parts and, like the conflict scale, explained a considerable amount of variance. Interestingly, this measure is designed to factor into six parts, so further interpretation of the pattern matrix is warranted to determine the nature of these newly revised factors. Table 6 displays the original factor structure for the enrichment model, and Table 7 displays the data-driven factors along with the factor correlation matrix. The first factor is made up of the six work-to-family capital and affect items, suggesting individuals see these items as tapping into a similar underlying construct. Looking closely at the wording of the items, they all seem to tap into positive emotions or

feeling good about oneself; moving forward factor one will be termed positive work-to-family self-esteem. Factor two is made up of the six family-to-work affect and development items, which reflect feeling good about oneself and one's accomplishments. Moving forward, factor two will be named positive family-to-work self-efficacy. Factor three consisted of only work-to-family development items, and factor four consisted of only family-to-work efficiency items. Interestingly, the fourth factor (family-to-work efficiency) was negatively correlated with the other three factors.

Finally, consistent with the traditional measure structure, the culture measure factored into three parts. However, these three factors did not explain sufficient variance and the third factor eigenvalue does not meet the Kaiser criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For comparison, the original factor structure is displayed in Table 8. Upon examining the EFA pattern matrix (Table 9), we can see that while factor one is clearly supervisor support, there are only two items loaded on factor two which seem to measure segmenting work and family. Items in factor three collectively tap into the extent to which the organization requires the individual to put work first. There are several items that crossloaded on this measure

(WFCUL14, WFCUL20, WFCUL13, WFCUL12, and WFCUL19), indicating the items do not accurately differentiate between these factors. Finally, the factor correlations indicate that factors two and three are negatively correlated, meaning individuals who perceive their work as inclusive of multiple roles are also more likely to segment their work and family lives.

Structural Equation Model

Before calculating the proposed structural equation models (SEMs), the data were further cleaned for missing values and multivariate outliers. A missing values analysis was conducted, the results of which indicated data were missing at random (Little's MCAR = 852.52, $p < .05$). Mahalonibis' distance was also calculated for regressions between SEM variables. Five responses were removed because their Mahalonibis values were more than 3.5 standard deviations from the mean and discontinuous. After removing these outliers and incomplete responses, the conflict and enrichment proposed models were run with 178 and 170 responses, respectively. Descriptive statistics for the variables analyzed in the SEMs are displayed in Table 10. Bivariate correlations among these variables are displayed in Table 11. When scaling constructs, the strongest anticipated factor loadings were

held constant, as informed by the previously conducted CFAs.

Both the conflict (Model 1) and enrichment (Model 4) models had an extremely poor fit (refer to Table 12). The conflict model required more than 500 iterations to converge and a cross loading (V11, F4) needed to be included in order for the model to converge. The enrichment model required 88 iterations, and one of the parameters was held to a lower limit until more parameters were defined, specifically the covariance between E8 and E9, E3 and E5, and D1 and D2. Adjusting covariance between within-measure error terms and factors is typically expected structural equation modeling, as we expect there will be some shared variance within-measure. The fit indices for these revised models (Model 2 and Model 5) are displayed in Table 12, and graphically presented in Figures 6 and 7, respectively. The models were then revised until good fit was achieved. Good fit was defined as a CFI of at least .92 and a RMSEA of at least .08 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Five additional parameters were estimated in addition to the Model 2 parameters to create Model 3 (refer to Table 12 and Figure 8). Parameters included covarying error terms (E1 and E2) and within-measure factors (D1 and D2). More critically, three

crossloadings were also added to the model (V17 on F4, V6 on F1, and V18 on F4). Four additional parameters were estimated in addition to the Model 5 to create Model 6 (refer to Table 12 and Figure 9). Typical post-hoc adjustments were made including covarying error terms (E4 and E1, E13 and E12); more importantly for the model, two crossloadings were also added (V1 on F4, V9 on F2).

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the commensurability and validity of current work-family measures within a sample of low-income community members. This investigation was exploratory and therefore guided by a key research question: are work and family measures of conflict, enrichment, and work-family supportive culture valid for low-income populations? The analyses explored the internal and external validity of three primary work-family constructs (conflict, enrichment, and culture) by analyzing factor structure and construct validity using commonly studied outcomes. In the following discussion, I interpret each measure in turn (conflict, enrichment, and culture). For each measure, I first interpret the factor analyses, pointing out both consistencies and inconsistencies with traditionally defined factor structures, as well as implications for factor structure results. I then discuss the structural equation modeling results, interpreting the external validity of the measures and comparing these results with those found for more traditionally studied white collar populations. Finally, I discuss overall implications in light of all

the analyses, define limitations of the study, and suggest future directions for research based on the results.

Work-Family Conflict Measure

The confirmatory factor analysis for the work-family conflict measure indicated a good fit. The fit indices reached traditionally defined rules of thumb for good fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The exploratory factor analysis confirmed the traditional two factor structure, although one crossloading occurred with the item, "The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities". The crossloaded item may be a function of marital/relationship status. Approximately 40% of the sample is not in a committed relationship or marriage, which may confound responses to the item. Although this demographic characteristic is problematic for the measure, many low-income working parents are sole caretakers (Casper & King, 2004), particularly single mothers (England, 2004; Hennessy, 2009), and therefore the sample is representative of our intended population. The assumption of a committed relationship in the item biases it towards individuals who are more likely to be in committed partnerships and marriages, namely white-collar, middle to upper class workers (Casper & King, 2004). This

crossloaded item may also be due to some blurring of the work-family interface, as proposed in the introduction. Possible blurring is also evident given high communalities, the inflated alpha, and within-measure pattern responses that indicate a halo effect. Therefore, although the factor analyses defined two factors, the extent to which these factors are truly distinct may be debatable. In order to distinguish whether or not the factors are less distinct, a comparison sample is needed and should be conducted in the future. Despite possible halo effects, the factor analyses overall conclude that the conflict measure demonstrates good internal validity when used in low-income populations, supporting its use in low income populations.

The results of the structural equation model raise more serious concerns about the predictive validity of the conflict measure. The proposed model did not fit well. Six adjustments were made to the model to achieve a level of good fit, as defined by Tabachnick & Fidell (2007). Two of these adjustments were covarying error terms within the conflict measure, including the covariance between factors, which is expected, as these factors and items have a considerable amount of shared variance. However, two cross-loadings also occurred. One of the

family-to-work items crossloaded onto the work-family factor, confirming results from the EFA. As previously discussed, this crossloading may be a result of a lack of spouses/partners in the sample and/or blurred lines between work and family domains. The culture crossloading is addressed later in this discussion within the culture section. Finally, the last two additional parameters indicated job satisfaction predicted both family satisfaction and turnover intentions. Again, these are not particularly surprising results given that these outcomes have been linked to one another in previous work-family studies (cf. Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Rode, Rehg, Near, & Underhill, 2007).

More interestingly, several expected parameters were dropped from the model. The results indicated both availability and use of work-family policies was unrelated to work-family culture. This supports the findings of several studies, which indicate informal support is a more meaningful predictor of work-family outcomes than formal policies for low-income workers (Muse & Pichler, in press; Swanberg, McKechnie, Ojha, & James, 2011). Based on policy use and availability means and lack of statistical significance in the structural equation models, the

low-income workers in our sample could not or did not use work-family policies, buttressing findings from previous studies on low-income work-family policy use (Clampet-Lundquist, Edin, London, Scott, & Hunter, 2004; Swanberg & Simmons, 2008).

Additionally, work-to-family conflict was not related to each of the three outcomes (job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and turnover intentions), and family-to-work conflict was not related to family satisfaction and turnover intentions and only weakly related to job satisfaction. These results raise into question the predictive validity for the measure. Work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict traditionally predict satisfaction and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Mangus & Viswesvaran, 2005); however, for low-income populations, the results indicate the measure may lack predictive validity. It should be noted that family satisfaction had a very low internal consistency, which may have added to the lack of statistical significance in the model. However, both turnover intentions and job satisfaction had adequate internal consistency, and therefore deficient predictive validity cannot fully be explained by a lack of reliability in the outcome measures.

The lack of construct validity corroborates doubts raised in the review as to whether the construct taps into meaningful aspects of the work-family interface. This measure reflects time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and demands, which may paint an insufficient picture of the work-family interface because it does not tap into logistical demands that pose more serious problems for low-income workers, such as transportation and child care (Clampet-Lundquist et al., 2004). The evidence of measure commensurability indicates that low-income workers may be able to conceptualize in general that work and family interfere with one another, but absence of predictive validity suggests this may not be what is most important for determining satisfaction and turnover outcomes. Indeed, these results fit with a number of studies detailing the importance of logistical demands on work-family outcomes (e.g. Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Hennessy, 2009; Son & Bauer, 2010).

Work-Family Enrichment Measure

The confirmatory factor analysis results indicate the traditional enrichment measurement model displayed a good fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, it is important to note that these results were unstable due to linear

dependency between parameters. Several crossloadings and covariance parameters were suggested to improve the model stability.

Despite good fit results from the CFA measurement model, the EFA indicated the ideal factor structure consisted of only four factors, not the traditional six. To demonstrate the extent to which the measure has a more simple structure than the one originally proposed, a post-hoc EFA was analyzed, forcing only two factors. These two factors combined explained nearly 65% of the variance in the data, further confirming unidimensionality of the measure. These results reveal conflict may not be as complex as originally proposed for low income populations. Not surprisingly, in both the initial four factor and post-hoc two factor EFAs, items grouped into two directions: work-to-family and family-to-work. This result indicates that low-income workers do conceptualize the directional nature of work-family enrichment, and distinguish clearly between these two directions. The primary difference in the factor structure was the first two factors, each of which contained two traditionally defined factors. Specifically, work-to-family capital and affect loaded together in the first factor. All of these items reflected positive feelings of esteem and

accomplishment, and were therefore labeled positive work-to-family self-esteem.

Family-to work-development and affect also loaded together. This result was slightly more surprising because family-work affect items reflect feelings, while family-to-work development items reflect an increase in knowledge and skill. These results therefore indicate that the two events may be very likely to co-occur. Intrinsic motivation may be an underlying construct to explain the connection between these two factors, as it proposes developing skills and performing well can be affectively rewarding (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004). The two factors can also be explained as a function of self-efficacy, which is defined as "one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Gist & Mitchell, 1992, p. 184). Individuals who have high self-efficacy feel they have the tools and knowledge to be successful in the face of demands, and mood and self-esteem are important determinants of self-efficacy (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Either underlying construct sheds light on the mechanisms that may be most important for low-income workers to experience enrichment, namely a job that is intrinsically

motivating and/or a job in which the family domain activities improve self-efficacy for performing in the work domain.

The latter two factors loaded as defined by the traditional model, although they explained very little variance in the model. These results suggest work-to-family knowledge and skill and family-to-work efficiency are less important or relevant for low-income positions. Low-income positions are often structured in shifts with fewer responsibilities and less autonomy than the typical white collar position (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Perry-Jenkins, 2004). Such positions may therefore require less focus and skill development, rendering these factors less relevant for low-income workers. It may also be that low-income positions require focus and foster skill development, but there are more pertinent factors for enriching the low-income work-family interface, rendering these factors less important for low-income workers. Surprisingly, the family-to-work efficiency factor also negatively correlated with all other enrichment factors, indicating that less focus at work was related to feeling good about work-family accomplishments, knowledge, and skills. This result is perplexing because it contradicts literature on engagement and enrichment,

which suggests workers who are more engaged and experience enrichment feel better about their work performance and are happier (Bakker, Demerouti, & ten Brummelhuis, 2012; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012). The double-barreled nature of the items makes it difficult to interpret why participants answered these items opposite of the responses consistent with previous literature.

Similar to the conflict EFA results, high communalities, the inflated alpha estimate, and within-measure pattern responses that indicate a halo effect. Informal comments from survey respondents regarding repeating questions and redundancies in the enrichment measure also indicate that there may be little distinction between measure items, particularly within factors, which can inflate reliability estimates (Cortina, 1993).

Although the SEM had to be adjusted in order to achieve reliable results, only covariances between enrichment item errors and covariance between the factors needed adjustment. These covariances are expected because items and factors within a measure are likely to relate to one another, as they are intended to tap into a single underlying construct. To achieve a good fit, numerous adjustments were made to the proposed model, including

estimating the covariance between the error terms work-to-family development and family-to-work affect and the error terms for turnover intentions and job satisfaction general items. The covariance between turnover intentions and job satisfaction errors may be a function of their predictive relationship, as found in the conflict SEM. The covariance between work-to-family development and family-work affect error terms has more serious implications for the measure. Although these two factors are from the same measure, and we may therefore assume they share some variance, work-family enrichment is proposed (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), studied (e.g. Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten, 2011), and in the current study factored into two distinct directions. Although this covariance is difficult to interpret because it is between the error terms, it may corroborate the lack of distinction between factors in the measure found in the EFA and as indicated by informal comments and within-measure patterns.

Variance parameters were also estimated from job satisfaction to work-to-family development and family-to-work enrichment to the time demands factor of culture, indicating these factors served as indicators of variables and constructs not predicted in the original

model. The link between job satisfaction and work-to-family development indicated that the more individuals felt they were gaining knowledge and skills on the job, the less likely they were to be satisfied with their job. This is similar to the inverse factor relationship found in the enrichment EFA, and the conclusion contradicts findings from the enrichment and engagement literatures (Bakker, Demerouti, & ten Brummelhuis, 2012; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012). It may be the case that for the low income work-family interface, workers simply do not gain ample knowledge and skills to help manage the family or that the design of their work does not foster engagement or enrichment via the development of skills and knowledge. The link between organizational time demands and family-to-work enrichment is a bit more problematic. In some sense, the link makes sense because individuals with less time demands may have more flexibility in terms of where they focus efforts, and therefore may experience more enrichment. However, the directional nature of work-family enrichment poses a problem. The family-to-work enrichment factor measures the extent to which the family domain improves performance in the work domain; however, the organizational time items reflect the extent to which

work demands allow more participation in the family domain. Therefore, conceptually, organizational time demands would be more likely a factor of work-to-family enrichment, not family-to-work enrichment. This perplexing result may be further indication of possible measure unidimensionality, as discussed in the EFA results. The result also may be an indicator of reciprocal work-family processes, which have been proposed in more recent work-family models (Frone et al., 1997).

Finally, two proposed parameters were removed from the model: the link between work-family policy use and work-family culture, and the link between family-to-work enrichment and family satisfaction. The first dropped parameter makes theoretical sense, given literature that details limited policy use for low-income workers (Clampet-Lundquist et al., 2004). In the conflict model, work-family policy use was also removed from the overall model along with work-family policy availability. Although work-family availability remained statistically significant, its practical significance is small, indicating availability is also not an important variable for determining whether or not the workplace has a family-supportive culture. The lack of statistical significance between family-to-work enrichment and family

satisfaction supports cross-domain effect models (e.g. Frone et al., 1992); however, the rest of the model links remain strong, supporting both cross-domain and domain-specific effects (Amstad et al., 2011; Kopelman et al., 1983; Shockley & Singla, 2011). The absence of significance may also indicate a lack of construct validity for family-to-work conflict, particularly when we consider this result in light of the link between family-work enrichment and organizational time demands. Finally, this insignificant link may also be due to poor internal consistency of the family satisfaction measure.

Work-Family Culture Measure

The results from the factor analyses indicate a lack of internal validity for the culture measure. The CFA results indicated several poor loadings and the managerial support factor had fairly low, though statistically significant, correlations with the career consequences and time demands factors. The EFA results shed more light on the data-driven structure of the measure. Although the EFA determined three factors, these were much different than the original factor structures, and several items cross loaded. The first factor was composed of all supervisor items, and was therefore appropriately named managerial

support, as it is in the original measure. Although these items had a clear underlying theme, several items had weak loadings and two items crossloaded with the second factor, indicating the items are not accurately tapping into the underlying construct. The next two factors are more interesting. The second factor consisted of only two items, each of which referred to the segmentation of work and family. These items also had relatively weak loadings, indicating the factor is not well-defined or represented by the two items. Items from the final factor reflect a prioritization of work over family. Consistent with the other two factors, this factor had several weak loadings and crossloadings. Factor loadings also revealed surprisingly weak correlations between the factors, and a negative correlation between the segmentation and work prioritization factors. This negative correlation indicates that individuals who are more likely to segment are also more likely to see their workplace as fostering of multiple roles. Previous results have indicated individuals may in fact prefer segmentation as a means for reducing conflict (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2005), and that perceptions of workplace supports may depend on preference for segmentation/integration (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas 2005). Segmentation preference may be a

function of the population or a characteristic of the sample.

In sum, these results indicate Thompson et al., (1999)'s measure of work-family culture is not internally valid when used on low-income populations. The CFA and EFA factor loadings indicate these items may be tapping into different aspects of culture that are irrelevant for low-income workers. For example the items, "In my work organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime" and "Many employees are resentful when men in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children" assume a white-collar job perspective. For low-income positions, benefits such as flextime and extended leave are unavailable and may not be used due to financial necessity (Heymann et al., 2006). Alternative crossloaded items may reflect lack of clarity for the item referent. For example "In my work organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters" is defined as a managerial support item in the original measurement model, but did not clearly load onto any of the three factors in the EFA. For the low income worker, leaving during the day may be dependent on a number of factors including peak hours, organizational

policy, and staffing, all of which may not be under management control. This raises the question of whether or not the culture items are clearly addressing the most relevant level for low income workers - namely, their direct supervisor (Henly, Schaefer, & Waxman, 2006; Swanberg et al., 2011).

When we look at strongly loaded items, these appear more applicable to the circumstances of the population: for example, "Higher management in my work organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns" and "Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families". Research has demonstrated management support in particular is critical to helping low-income workers manage their work and family roles (Henly et al., 2006; Muse & Pichler, in press; Swanberg et al., 2011), and therefore it is no surprise that many of the supervisor items loaded clearly and strongly in one factor, and that this factor furthermore contributed the majority of the variance captured by the measure. The latter two factors may reflect how low-income workers perceive their work-family culture at work, namely in terms of which roles are prioritized and the degree to which roles are segmented/integrated. Conceptually, these facets of

culture make sense. There may in fact be work norms around role prioritization and segmentation/integration that define work-family culture. To my knowledge, this possibility has not been directly explored. However, previous research has indicated segmentation/integration may be a moderator for work-family policy use (Rothbard et al., 2005), and that the extent to which work-family policy use is encouraged or discouraged to engage in alternate roles can impact policy use (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003; Kossek et al., 2011b).

Results from the structural equation models further provide evidence that the culture measure may not be valid in low-income populations. In the conflict model, the managerial support factor did not load well onto the overall culture construct, although time demands and career consequences did load strongly. In contrast, for the enrichment measure it was managerial support that loaded best and time demands and career consequences loaded poorly. These results demonstrate the lack of correlation between managerial support and both career consequences and time demands, which was also demonstrated in the CFA factor correlations. This lack of a relationship indicates these facets of culture are relatively independent of one another. If this measure

were to be used in the future for low-income populations, researchers may want to analyze the factors separately, as they represent independent aspects of culture. The lack of correlation is also likely a reflection of the poorly fit measurement model and the lack of common variance between each item.

Culture also had no relationship with family-to-work conflict and a relatively small, though statistically significant relationship with family-work enrichment. A relationship between these constructs is expected based on previous empirical results (Adkins & Premeaux, 2012;Booth & Matthews, 2012), and more importantly based on theory that defines the relationship between work and family domains as reciprocal (Frone et al., 1997). However, it does make sense according to directional work-family models (e.g. Frone et al., 1992; Michel, Mitchelson, Kotrba, LeBreton, & Baltes, 2009) and job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) because culture is a work-domain resource that can be used to manage the demands of the work domain, thereby mitigating work-family conflict and enhancing work-family enrichment.

Finally, as previously discussed, policy availability and use was either unrelated or weakly related to culture in both models. This is likely a function of the lack of

policy availability and use within the population (Breitkreuz et al., 2010; Clampet-Lundquist et al., 2004), although more recent studies have indicated policy is not sufficient for capturing support across populations (Kossek et al., 2011b; Premeaux, Adkins, & Mossholder, 2007; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). However, in studies using white-collar populations many results still indicate there is some relationship between policy availability/use and culture or support (Allen, 2001; Frye & Breaugh, 2004; Thompson et al., 1999), and policy may be an embedding mechanism for work-family supportive culture (Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). Therefore, the complete lack of work-family policy impact is likely due to the qualitatively different nature of work-family culture and policy for low-income populations.

Overall Implications

Overall, the results of this study indicate current work-family conflict, enrichment, and culture measures, which are based on challenges faced by white-collar, middle class populations, may not yield reliable results for low-income populations. In particular, the conflict measure had relatively good commensurability, but was unable to predict common outcomes and had one

cross-loading. The enrichment measure has some evidence for commensurability, but did not factor out into its appropriate structure when using exploratory analyses. Furthermore, some factors crossloaded on other variables and each factor did not predict all proposed outcomes. Finally, the culture measure lacked both commensurability and validity evidence, likely due to biased items that tapped into aspects of culture specific to white collar positions.

These results have implications for continuing future research with low-income workers and other underrepresented populations. In particular, researchers should use caution when comparing results from white collar populations to low-income populations. The lack of predictive validity in the conflict measure indicates the traditional measures, and therefore the underlying theories upon which measures are based, may not be capturing what is most critical for low-income populations. Therefore, improving the work-family interface for low-income workers may not involve alleviating time conflicts or strain, as is traditionally suggested (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Instead, practitioners may want to alleviate logistical challenges such as childcare, as is suggested in the qualitative

literature (Huston, 2004), which is not currently captured in work-family measures.

Furthermore, current work-family theories and constructs should be revisited for their relevance to alternate contexts. The results suggest that although low-income workers can conceive of bi-directional conflict and enrichment, the factors, and outcomes for these are different than those traditionally found in white collar, middle class populations. Low-income workers may therefore experience conflict and enrichment, but perhaps experience or perceive these phenomena differently, hence yielding different factor structures and outcomes. Additionally, researchers may want to consider expanding these theories and constructs to be more inclusive. For example, including a structural dimension of work-family conflict may improve its predictability for low-income workers because it would include challenges most relevant and likely to lead to conflicts and disruptions.

Work-family culture, as defined by Thompson et al. (1999), is not valid for low-income populations. However, the strongest factor was managerial support, which is supported by both quantitative and qualitative literature (Muse & Pichler, In press; Swanberg et al., 2011). Although these results indicate this measure is not

appropriate for use with low-income samples, the concept of work-family culture is still theoretically plausible for low-income populations. To measure low-income work-family culture, more general measures of culture that do not tap into specific policy use and perceptions or measures that focus largely on supervisor support are likely to more accurately measure culture. It may also be useful to expand our definition of culture to include norms such as segmentation/integration preferences and role prioritization in the organization, which are both factors reflected in the data-driven culture facets.

Finally, the study results confirmed alternative studies indicating that examining work-family policy is insufficient for capturing work-family support in the organization (Kossek et al., 2011) as well as largely irrelevant for low-income populations (Heymann et al., 2006). Therefore, researchers should not use policy as a proxy for culture. Additionally, practitioners and supervisors should focus more on providing informal support to help low-income individuals manage work and family challenges in the absence of formal policy.

Study Limitations and Future Directions

The current study has several limitations that should be considered when considering its results and implications. First, this study is exploratory in nature, and therefore was not guided by specific hypotheses. To strengthen the conclusions drawn in the discussion, qualitative investigation should be conducted to verify the explanation of results and investigate how and why each measure failed to maintain its traditionally defined structure. Furthermore, a comparative sample of white collar, middle-class workers would strengthen the conclusions drawn in this manuscript. Finally, although the sample was largely representative of the population from which it was drawn, participants were primarily female. Past studies have indicated gender impacts work-family experiences (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991, Muano, Kinnunen, & Feldt, 2012). Future studies with more adequate male sample size should compare the proposed models by gender.

Moving forward, the results support the study of low-income populations as separate and distinct from traditional white-collar, middle class populations. It should be noted that low-income populations are not the only underrepresented populations in work-family

literature (Agars & French, 2011), and therefore similar exploratory studies may benefit a deeper understanding of alternative underrepresented populations.

Although the most popular work-family theories were examined in the current study, there are alternative perspectives, such as job demands-resources theory, work-family balance, work-family spillover, and border/boundary theory, which may be useful perspectives to utilize moving forward in studying low-income populations. In particular, border/boundary theory examines role identity and boundaries and the extent to which roles are segmented or integrated (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Clark, 2000). This perspective does not necessarily imply conflict, and allows for role overlap, as seen in qualitative results for low-income parents (Hennessy, 2009). Furthermore, job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) may be a useful framework for understanding how multiple demands, including logistical demands relevant for low-income workers, and resources, like supervisor support, interact to support work and family responsibilities. Most importantly, theories and research questions used to study the low-income family interface must be inclusive of factors that are most relevant and important to the

population. Measures and theories taken from the dominant white-collar perspective should be carefully scrutinized for possible bias that may skew results.

Conclusion

The current study explored the commensurability and validity of work-family conflict, enrichment, and culture for low-income populations. For each measure, the results failed to extrapolate clearly onto the current sample of low-income community members to different degrees and for different reasons. Specifically, work-family conflict is commensurate but shows some evidence of criterion deficiency, the work-family enrichment measure shows strong evidence for unidimensionality but results support its predictive validity, and work-family supportive culture shows lack of commensurability, although it too maintains predictive validity. These results may be due to qualitative differences in the low-income work-family interface, which present unique challenges that change the relationship between the work and family domains. In order to more accurately and meaningfully capture the interplay between work and family roles, more in-depth qualitative assessment must inform future measurement tools to ensure both researchers and practitioners are asking the

questions most relevant for low-income individuals. It is only by gaining this deeper insight that we can make a meaningful difference in helping organizations and individuals successfully manage the challenges that are most critical to organizational success and worker well-being and health.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Work-Family Conflict

Instructions: Please read each of the following statements very carefully. Please circle the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each sentence on a scale of one to seven, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree.

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7

1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81,* 400-410.

Work-Family Enrichment

Instructions: Please read each of the following statements very carefully. Please circle the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each sentence on a scale of one to five, 1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree.

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1----------2----------3----------4----------5

My involvement in my work ————————.

1. Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
2. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
3. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
4. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
5. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
6. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
7. Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
8. Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5
9. Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member	1	2	3	4	5

My involvement in my family ————————.

10. Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
11. Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
12. me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
13. Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
14. Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
15. Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
16. Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
17. Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5
18. Causes me to be more focused at work and helps me to be a better worker	1	2	3	4	5

Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K., Wayne, J., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work-family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 68*, 131-164.

Work-Family Supportive Culture

Instructions: Please circle the number that indicates to which each item characterizes your organization on a scale of one to seven, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree.

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7

1. In my work organization employees can easily balance their work and family lives.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family first.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. In my work organization it is generally okay to talk about one's family at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. Higher management in my work organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. To turn down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in my work organization.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. In general, managers in my work organization are quite accommodating of family-related needs.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. Many employees are resentful when women in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. To get ahead at my work organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
11. To be viewed favorably by top management, employees in my work organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. In my work organization employees who participate in available work–family programs (e.g., job sharing, part-time work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Many employees are resentful when men in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. In my work organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. My work organization encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and home life begins	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. My work organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. In my work organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. In my work organization employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Lyness, K. S. (1999). When work–family benefits are not enough: The influence of work–family culture on benefit utilization, organizational attachment, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54,* 392-415.

Work-Family Benefit Availability

Instructions: The following is a list of organization benefit policies. Please place a check mark next to each policy your organization offers in the space provided to the right of the policy. Please place an additional check mark in the space provided next to each policy you are currently using, or have used in the past.

Available?	Used?		Available?	Used?	
☐	☐	Flextime	☐	☐	Subsidized local child care
☐	☐	Compressed work week	☐	☐	Child care information/referral services
☐	☐	Telecommuting	☐	☐	Paid maternity leave
☐	☐	Part-time work	☐	☐	Paid paternity leave
☐	☐	On-site child care center	☐	☐	Elder care

Allen, T. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58,* 414-435.

Job Satisfaction

Instructions: Please read each statement carefully and circle the number that indicates how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by the statement, on a scale of one to five, 1 being very satisfied and 5 being very dissatisfied. Remember: Keep the statement in mind when deciding how satisfied you feel about that aspect of your job. Please answer every item. Be frank and honest. Give a true picture of your feelings about your present job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about...	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
2. The chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers	1	2	3	4	5
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5
9. The chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5
10. The chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
12. The way company policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5
14. The chances for advancement on this job	1	2	3	4	5
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	1	2	3	4	5
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	1	2	3	4	5
17. The working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	1	2	3	4	5

Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., & England, G. W. (1967). Manual for the minnesota satisfaction questionnaire. *Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, 22.*

Family Satisfaction

Instructions: Please read each of the following statements very carefully. Please circle the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each sentence on a scale of one to seven, 1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree.

Strongly Disagree **Strongly Agree**

1 ---------- 2 ---------- 3 ---------- 4 ---------- 5 ---------- 6 ---------- 7

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my family	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. I am generally satisfied with the work I do for my family	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. I frequently think I would like to change my family situation	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Kopelman, R. E., Greenhaus, J. H., & Connolly, T. F. (1983). A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance, 32*, 198-215.

Turnover Intentions

Instructions: Please read each of the following statements very carefully. Please circle the number that best indicates the accuracy of each of the following statements on a scale of one to five, 1 being not accurate at all and 5 being extremely accurate.

Not Accurate At All **Extremely Accurate**

1 ----------2----------3----------4---------- 5

1. I plan to be with the company a while	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. Sometimes I get so irritated I think about changing jobs	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. I plan to be with the company five years from now	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. I would turn down a contract from another company if it came tomorrow	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Mitchel, J. O. (1981). The effect of intentions, tenure, personal, and organizational variables on managerial turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 24*, 742-751.

Demographics

Zip Code: What is the zip code where you live? _____

Age: What is your age? _____

Gender: What is your gender? _____

Race/Ethnicity: Select one or more.

- ☐ White
- ☐ Hispanic/Latino
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Other
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

Language: Is English your first language? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF NO: How many years have you spoken English? _____ years

Marital/Relationship Status:

☐ Single ☐ Committed Relationship ☐ Domestic Partnership
☐ Married ☐ Separated ☐ Divorced ☐ Widow/Widower

Education Level: Please mark the box next to the highest level of education you have completed.

- ☐ Up to Grade 8
- ☐ Completed Grade 8
- ☐ Some High School
- ☐ High School Diploma
- ☐ GED (General Education Diploma)
- ☐ Associate's Degree (AA, AS, AAB)
- ☐ Bachelor's Degree (BA, BS)
- ☐ Graduate Degree (MA, PhD)

Do you have additional vocational or technical training/certificates? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Are you currently enrolled at an educational institution? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Parental Status:
Do you have children? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF YES: How many children do you have? _____
Please list their ages: _____
How many live with you? _____
Are you their primary care giver? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF NO: Please continue on the next page.

Employment Status

Are you employed? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF YES: Please complete the following questions for each job position you hold.

Primary Job: ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Self-Employed

Industry Type:
☐ Office/Administrative Support ☐ Food Preparation/Serving
☐ Transportation/Materials Moving ☐ Healthcare
☐ Sales and Related ☐ Production Occupations
☐ Construction ☐ Education/Training

☐ Other: Please specify. _____

Level of Job: ☐ Entry-level ☐ Management ☐ Executive

How long have you worked at your current organization? __Year(s), _____Month(s)

On average, how many hours do you work per week?
☐ 0-9 ☐ 10-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or more

Secondary Job: ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Self-Employed

Industry Type:
☐ Office/Administrative Support ☐ Food Preparation/Serving
☐ Transportation/Materials Moving ☐ Healthcare
☐ Sales and Related ☐ Production Occupations
☐ Construction ☐ Education/Training
☐ Other: Please specify. _____

Level of Job: ☐ Entry-level ☐ Management ☐ Executive

How long have you worked at your current organization? ____Year(s), ___ Month(s)

On average, how many hours do you work per week?
☐ 0-9 ☐ 10-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or more

IF NO: Please check the appropriate box.
☐ Unemployed ☐ Retired ☐ On Disability ☐ Homemaker ☐ Student

Are you currently looking for work? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF UNEMPLOYED, how long have you been unemployed?
☐ Less than 1 month ☐ 1-3 months ☐ 4-6 months
☐ 6-12 months ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 2 or more years

Partner/Spousal Employment Status

Is your partner/spouse employed? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF YES: Please complete the following questions for each job position they hold.
Primary Job: ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Self-Employed

Industry Type:
☐ Office/Administrative Support ☐ Food Preparation/Serving
☐ Transportation/Materials Moving ☐ Healthcare
☐ Sales and Related ☐ Production Occupations
☐ Construction ☐ Education/Training
☐ Other: Please specify. _____

Level of Job: ☐ Entry-level ☐ Management ☐ Executive

How long has your partner/spouse worked at their current organization? __ Year(s), ___ Month(s)

On average, how many hours do they work per week?
☐ 0-9 ☐ 10-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or more

Secondary Job: ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Self-Employed

Industry Type: ☐ Office/Administrative Support ☐ Food Preparation/Serving
☐ Transportation/Materials Moving ☐ Healthcare
☐ Sales and Related ☐ Production Occupations
☐ Construction ☐ Education/Training
☐ Other: Please specify. _____

Level of Job: ☐ Entry-level ☐ Management ☐ Executive

How long has your partner/spouse worked at their current organization? __ Year(s), ___ Month(s)

On average, how many hours do they work per week?
☐ 0-9 ☐ 10-19 ☐ 20-29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60 or more

IF NO: Please check the appropriate box.
☐ Unemployed ☐ Retired ☐ On Disability ☐ Homemaker ☐ Student

Is your partner/spouse looking for work? ☐ Yes ☐ No

IF UNEMPLOYED, how long have they been unemployed?
☐ Less than 1 month ☐ 1-3 months ☐ 4-6 months
☐ 6-12 months ☐ 1-2 years ☐ 2 or more years

Annual Income

Are you the primary source of income for your household? ☐ Yes ☐ No

What is your source of income? Please check all that apply.

☐ Employment ☐ Cash Aid/ TANF/ Cal Works ☐ Alimony
☐ Child Support ☐ Unemployment Benefits ☐ Pension
☐ Social Security/Disability

How much did YOU earn from all employers, before taxes and other deductions, for 2010?

$ _____ in 2010

IF YOU DON'T KNOW OR REFUSED: Would it amount to $15,000 or more? ____
IF YES: Would it amount to $17,500 or more? _____
IF YES: Would it amount to $20,000 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $12,500 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $10,000 or more? _____
IF YES: Would it amount to $12,500 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $7,500 or more? _____

How much was the total combined income of ALL MEMBERS of your family for 2010?

$_____ in 2010

IF YOU DON'T KNOW OR REFUSED: Would it amount to $25,000 or more? ____
IF YES: Would it amount to $35,000 or more? _____
IF YES: Would it amount to $40,000 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $30,000 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $15,000 or more? _____
IF YES: Would it amount to $20,000 or more? _____
IF NO: Would it amount to $10,000 or more? _____

Please share any thoughts or comments you have about this survey: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Developed by Jacqueline McConnaughy, Kimberly French, and Mark Agars

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 1.

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	N	*M*	*SD*
Age	228	36.99	11.72
Household income			
Open-ended item	75	$24,947.00	$10,449.00
Intervals ($5,000/interval)	124	4.90	1.81
Tenure (Years)	164	6.15	1.17
	Frequency	*Percentage*	
Gender			
Male	44	19.0%	
Female	181	78.4%	
Race/ethnicity			
American Indian or Alaska Native	4	1.7%	
Asian	11	4.8%	
Black or African American	34	14.7%	
Hispanic/Latino	119	51.5%	
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	3	1.3%	
White	51	22.1%	
Other	7	3.0%	
Marital/Relationship Status			
Single	58	25.1%	
Married	98	42.4%	
Committed Relationship	31	13.4%	
Domestic Partnership	9	3.9%	
Separated	8	3.5%	
Divorced	21	9.1%	
Widow/widower	3	1.3%	
Education			
Up to or completed grade 8	12	5.2%	
Some high school	27	11.7%	
High school diploma or GED	113	48.9%	
Associate's degree	42	18.2%	
Bachelor's degree	26	11.3%	
Graduate degree	8	3.5%	

	Frequency	*Percentage*
Parental Status		
Parent	200	86.6%
Non-parent	28	12.1%
Employment status		
Full time	130	66.0%
Part time	56	24.2%
Self employed	11	5.6%
Unemployed	23	10.0%
Industry		
Sales and Related	45	19.5%
Other	42	18.2%
Office/Administrative	32	13.9%
Education/Training	19	8.2%
Food Preparation/Serving	17	7.4%
Healthcare	14	6.1%
Production Occupations	13	5.6%
Construction	12	5.2%
Transportation/Moving	5	2.2%
Spouse employment status		
Employed full time	63	27.3%
Employed part time	19	8.2%
Self-employed	6	2.6%
Unemployed	77	33.3%

Table 2.

Confirmatory factor analysis fit indices for conflict, enrichment, and culture scales.

	d.f.	*SB* χ^2	*CFI*	*RMSEA*	*RMSEA 95% CI*	
					Upper Limit	Lower Limit
Conflict	33	96.91***	.955	.093	.072	.114
Enrichment	127	212.26***	.973	.056	.042	.069
Culture	167	424.76***	.833	.086	.076	.096

Note. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$

Table 3.

Exploratory factor analysis factors, eigenvalues, and variance for conflict, enrichment and culture scales.

	N	*Factor*	*Rotated Eigenvalue*	*% Variance*	*% Variance Cumulative*
Conflict	224	1	4.76	54.17	54.17
		2	4.17	14.33	68.49
Enrichment	215	1	7.43	53.16	53.16
		2	6.47	12.85	66.01
		3	5.59	5.37	71.37
		4	6.56	4.48	75.85
Culture	208	1	5.51	31.95	31.95
		2	2.09	13.62	45.57
		3	4.37	2.88	48.45

Table 4.

Traditionally defined conflict measure structure

Factor 1 – Work-family conflict	WFCN1 - The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
	WFCN2 - The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.
	WFCN3 - Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
	WFCN4 - My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.
	WFCN5 - Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.
Factor 2 – Family-work conflict	WFCN6 - The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.
	WFCN7 - I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
	WFCN8 - Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
	WFCN9 - My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
	WFCN10 - Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

Table 5.

Conflict scale rotated factor loadings

	Factor Loadings	
Factor Items	1	2
Factor 1 – Work-family conflict		
WFCN3 - Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me	.933	-.009
WFCN2 - The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill my family responsibilities	.899	-.047
WFCN4 – My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill my family duties	.827	.094
WFCN1 – The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life	.776	.038
WFCN5 – Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities	.762	-.038
Factor 2 – Family-work conflict		
WFCN8 – Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner	-.103	.933
WFCN7 – I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home	-.033	.865
WFCN9 – My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime	-.010	.770
WFCN10 – Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties	.185	.652
WFCN6 – The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities*	.371	.504
	Factor Correlations	
	1	2
Factor 1 – Work to family conflict	1.00	
Factor 2 – Family to work conflict	.530	1.00

Note. *Indicates a cross loaded item

Table 6.

Traditionally defined enrichment measure structure

Factor 1 – Work-Family Development	WFE1 - Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE2 - Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE3 - Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member
Factor 2 – Work-Family Affect	WFE4 - Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE5 - Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE6 - Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member
Factor 3 – Work-Family Capital	WFE7 -Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE8 -Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member
	WFE9 -Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member
Factor 4 – Family-Work Development	WFE10 -Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE11 -Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE12 -Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker
Factor 5 – Family-Work Affect	WFE13 -Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE14 -Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE15 -Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker
Factor 6 – Family-Work Efficiency	WFE16 -Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE17 -Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker
	WFE18 -Causes me to be more focused at work and helps me to be a better worker

Table 7.

Enrichment scale rotated factor loadings

	Factor Loadings			
Factor Items	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 – Positive work-to-family self-esteem				
WFE7 – Helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member	.874	-.067	-.029	-.120
WFE8 – Provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member	.867	.142	-.045	.102
WFE9 – Provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member	.865	.097	-.093	.005
WFE6 – Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member	.831	-.057	.087	-.061
WFE5 – Makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member	.797	-.084	.125	-.079
WFE4 – Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member	.748	-.039	.174	.003
Factor 2 – Positive family-to-work self-efficacy				
WFE13 - Puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker	.001	.922	-.086	-.007
WFE15 – Makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker	.012	.859	-.045	-.070
WFE14 – Makes me happy and this helps me be a better worker	.095	.844	-.105	-.064
WFE12 – Helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker	.003	.658	.267	-.008
WFE10 – Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker	.025	.572	.270	-.128
WFE11 – Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker	.013	.576	.323	-.096
Factor 3 – Work-family development				
WFE1 – Helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member	.013	.040	.845	-.025
WFE2 – Helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member	.099	.008	.745	-.119
WFE3 – Helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member	.236	.083	.684	.008

Factor 4 – Family-work efficiency				
WFE17 – Encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker	-.015	-.002	-.008	-.943
WFE16 – Requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker	.031	-.034	.037	-.844
WFE18 – Causes me to be more focused at work and helps me to be a better worker	.038	.182	-.044	-.750

	Factor Correlations			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 – Positive work-to-family self-esteem	1.00			
Factor 2 – Positive family-to-work self-efficacy	.418	1.00		
Factor 3 – Work-family development	.583	.365	1.00	
Factor 4 – Family-work efficiency	-.543	-.627	-.453	1.00

Note. *Indicates a cross loaded item

Table 8.

Traditionally defined work-family culture measure structure

Factor 1 – Managerial Support	WFCUL1 - In my work organization employees can easily balance their work and family lives. WFCUL2 - In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family first. WFCUL3 - In my work organization it is generally okay to talk about one's family at work. WFCUL5 - Higher management in my work organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns. WFCUL8 - In general, managers in my work organization are quite accommodating of family-related needs. WFCUL14 - In my work organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters. (R) WFCUL15 - My work organization encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and home life begins WFCUL16 - Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities. WFCUL17 - My work organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family reasons. WFCUL18 - Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities. WFCUL20 - In my work organization employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives.

Factor 2 – Career Consequences	WFCUL7 - To turn down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in my work organization. (R)
	WFCUL9 - Many employees are resentful when women in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children. (R)
	WFCUL12 - In my work organization employees who participate in available work–family programs (e.g., job sharing, part-time work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs. (R)
	WFCUL13 - Many employees are resentful when men in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children. (R)
	WFCUL19 - In my work organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime. (R)
Factor 2 – Organizational Time Demands	WFCUL4 - Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends. (R)
	WFCUL6 - Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families. (R)
	WFCUL10 - To get ahead at my work organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home. (R)
	WFCUL11 - To be viewed favorably by top management, employees in my work organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives. (R)

Note. (R) indicates a reverse scored item

Table 9.

Culture scale rotated factor loadings

	Factor Loadings		
Factor Items	1	2	3
Factor 1 – Managerial support			
WFCUL18 – Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities	.819	.144	-.094
WFCUL5 – Higher management in my work organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns	.799	.071	-.005
WFCUL17 – My work organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family reasons	.782	.142	-.031
WFCUL8 – In general, managers in my work organization are quite accommodating of work and family needs	.758	-.060	.144
WFCUL16 – Middle managers and executives in my work organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities	.733	.173	-.019
WFCUL2 – In the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to put their family first	.702	-.047	.251
WFCUL1 – In my work organization employees can easily balance their work and family lives	.565	-.087	.139
WFCUL3 – In my work organization, it is generally OK to talk about one's family at work	.542	-.232	-.063
WFCUL20 – In my work organization, employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives*	.403	.372	-.039
WFCUL14 – In my work organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters*	.379	-.252	.337
Factor 2 – Work-family segmentation			
WFCUL15 – My work organization encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and home life begins	.128	.662	.004
WFCUL13 – Many employees are resentful when men in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children*	.082	-.394	.369

Factor 3 – Prioritizing work			
WFCUL6 – Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families	.221	.167	.730
WFCUL10 – To get ahead at my work organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home	.072	-.007	.685
WFCUL11 – To be viewed favorably by top management, employees in my work organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives	.287	-.157	.604
WFCUL7 – To turn down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in my work organization	.057	-.058	.573
WFCUL4 – Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends	-.145	.076	.466
WFCUL9 – Many employees are resentful when women in my work organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children	-.044	-.152	.440
WFCUL12 – In my work organization employees who participate in available work-family programs (e.g., job sharing, part-time work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs*	.255	-.259	.418
WFCUL19 – In my work organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime*	.136	-.355	.376

	Factor Correlations		
	1	2	3
Factor 1 – Managerial support	1.00		
Factor 2 – Work-family segmentation	.010	1.00	
Factor 3 – Prioritizing work	.312	-.393	1.00

Note. *Indicates a cross loaded item

Table 10.

Descriptive statistics of the variables used in the structural equation models

	N	M	SD
Total Conflict	219	33.11	12.54
Work-Family Conflict	220	18.79	7.60
Family-Work Conflict	225	14.33	6.72
Total Enrichment	210	61.09	14.85
Work-Family Enrichment	220	27.97	9.00
Family-Work Enrichment	212	32.98	7.64
Work-Family Culture	203	87.30	19.99
Job Satisfaction	202	68.60	15.17
Family Satisfaction	214	15.43	3.41
Turnover Intentions	214	11.55	3.91
Work-Family Policies Available	215	2.46	2.18
Work-Family Policies Used	215	.98	1.27

Table 11.

Correlation matrix of the variables used in the structural equation model

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Total Conflict	1.00											
2. Work-Family Conflict	.89**	1.00										
3. Family-Work Conflict	.86**	.53**	1.00									
4. Total Enrichment	-.17*	-.18**	-.10	1.00								
5.WF Enrichment	-.15*	-.17*	-.07	.91**	1.00							
6. FW Enrichment	-.15*	-.14*	-.10	.87**	.59**	1.00						
7. Work-Family Culture	-.41**	-.43**	-.30**	.31**	.34**	.19**	1.00					
8. Job Satisfaction	-.24**	-.20**	-.22**	.48**	.52**	.31**	.53**	1.00				
9. Family Satisfaction	-.28**	-.21**	-.28*	.334**	.26**	.33**	.30**	.36**	1.00			
10. Turnover Intentions	.30**	.31**	.20*	-.30**	-.35**	-.43**	-.43**	-.49**	-.31**	1.00		
11. Benefits Available	.02	-.008	.03	.22**	.25**	.14	.18*	.13	.08	-.19**	1.00	
12. Benefits Used	.14	.11	.11	.150*	.13	.08	.05	-.03	.01	.01	.23**	1.00

Note. $*p < .05$ $**p < .01$

Table 12.

SEM fit indices for conflict, enrichment, and culture scales.

	d.f.	SB χ^2	CFI	RMSEA	RMSEA 95% CI	
					Upper Limit	Lower Limit
Conflict						
Model 1	164	109.75***	.842	.099	.088	.110
Model 2	163	384.37***	.878	.088	.076	.099
Model 3	158	245.92***	.951	.056	.042	.069
Enrichment						
Model 4	98	419.45***	.723	.139	.125	.153
Model 5	95	211.09***	.884	.085	.069	.100
Model 6	91	164.16***	.927	.069	.052	.085

*Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001*

APPENDIX C

FIGURES

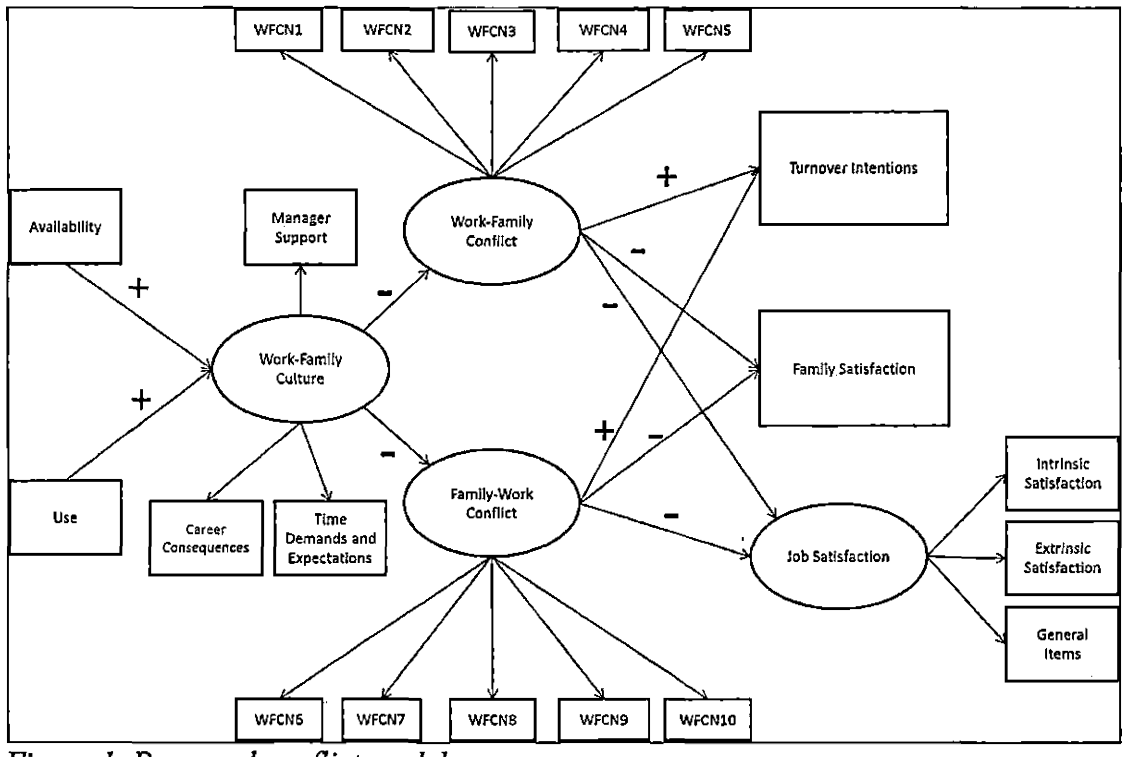

Figure 1. Proposed conflict model

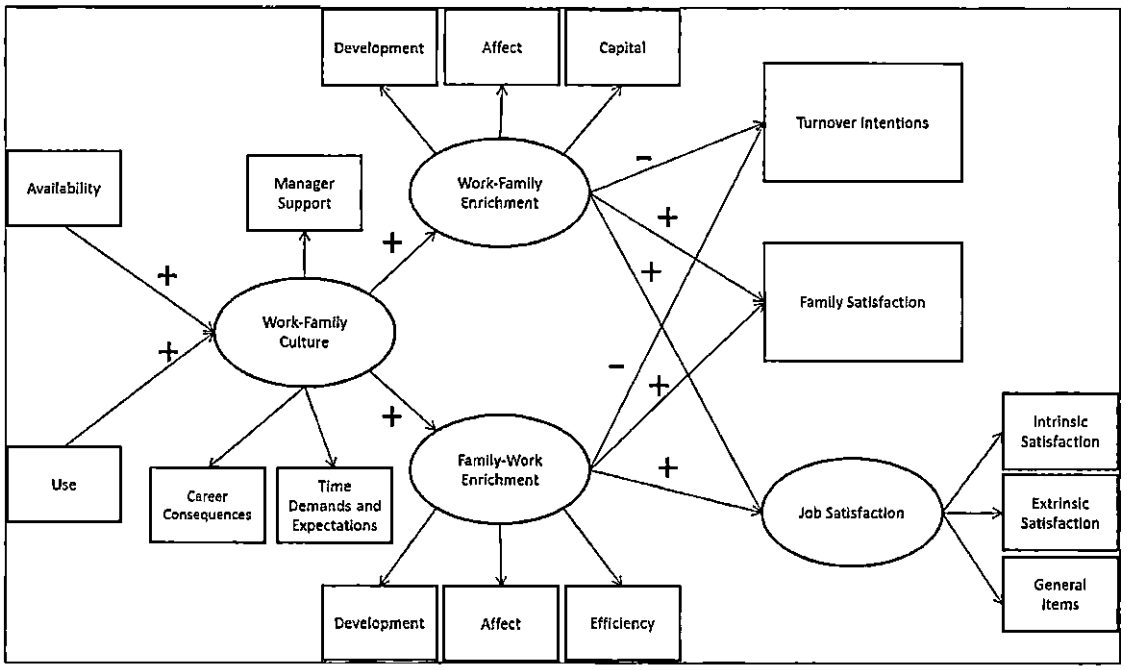

Figure 2. Proposed enrichment model

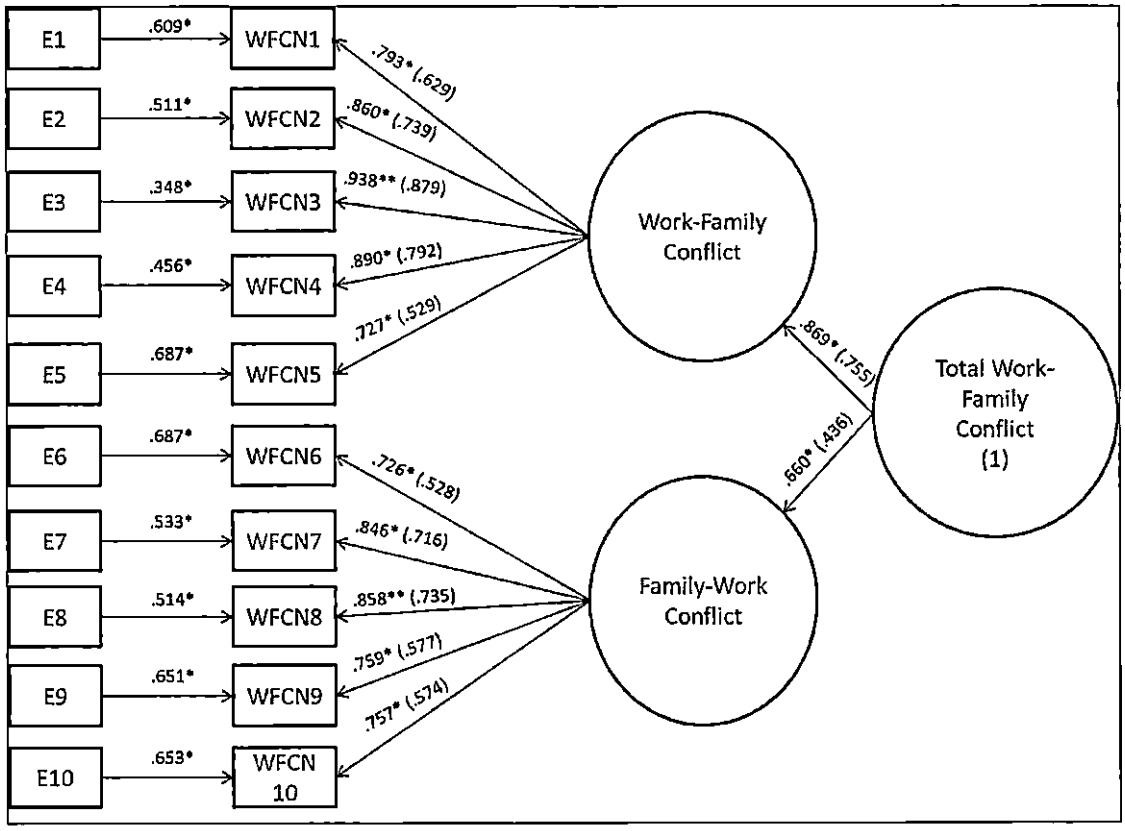

Figure 3. Conflict measurement model

Note. $*p < .05$, R^2 values displayed in parentheses **Indicates the path is constrained to 1

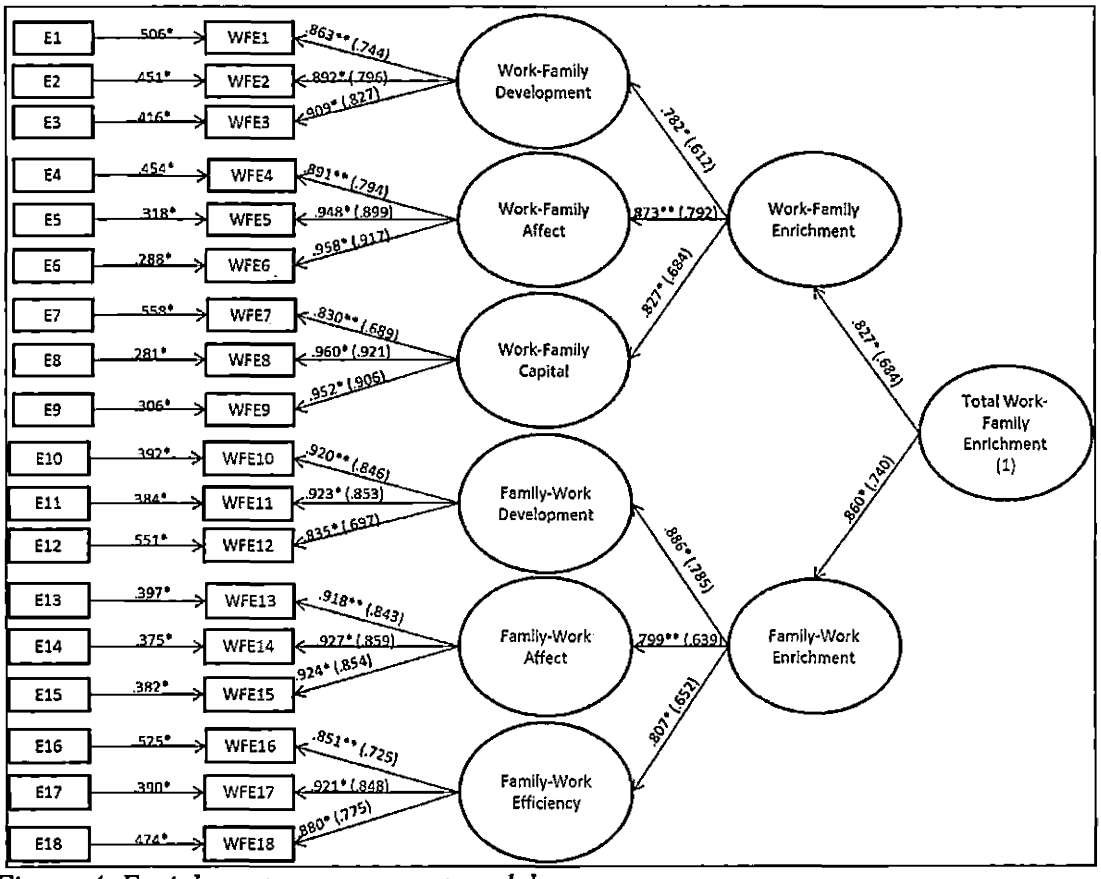

Figure 4. Enrichment measurement model

Note. $*p < .05$, R^2 values displayed in parentheses **Indicates the path is constrained to 1

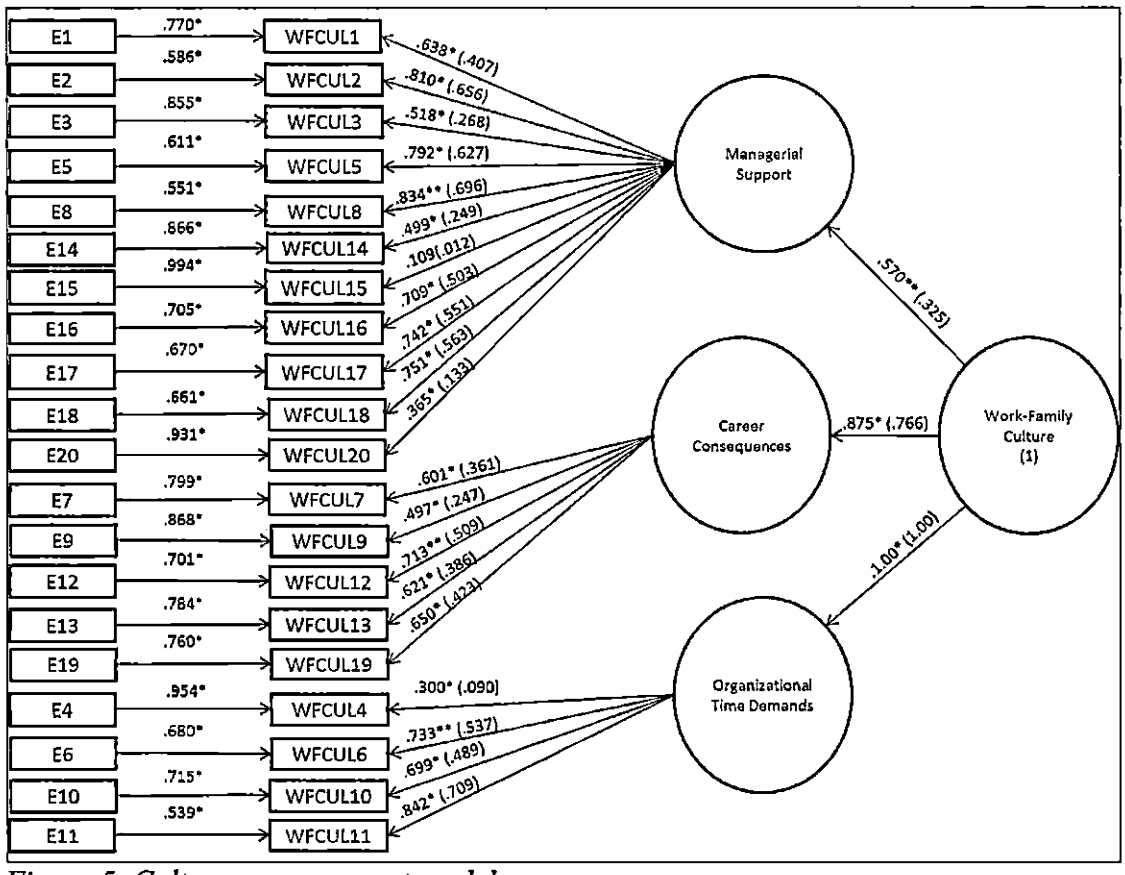

Figure 5. Culture measurement model

Note. *$p < .05$, R^2 values displayed in parentheses **Indicates the path is constrained to 1

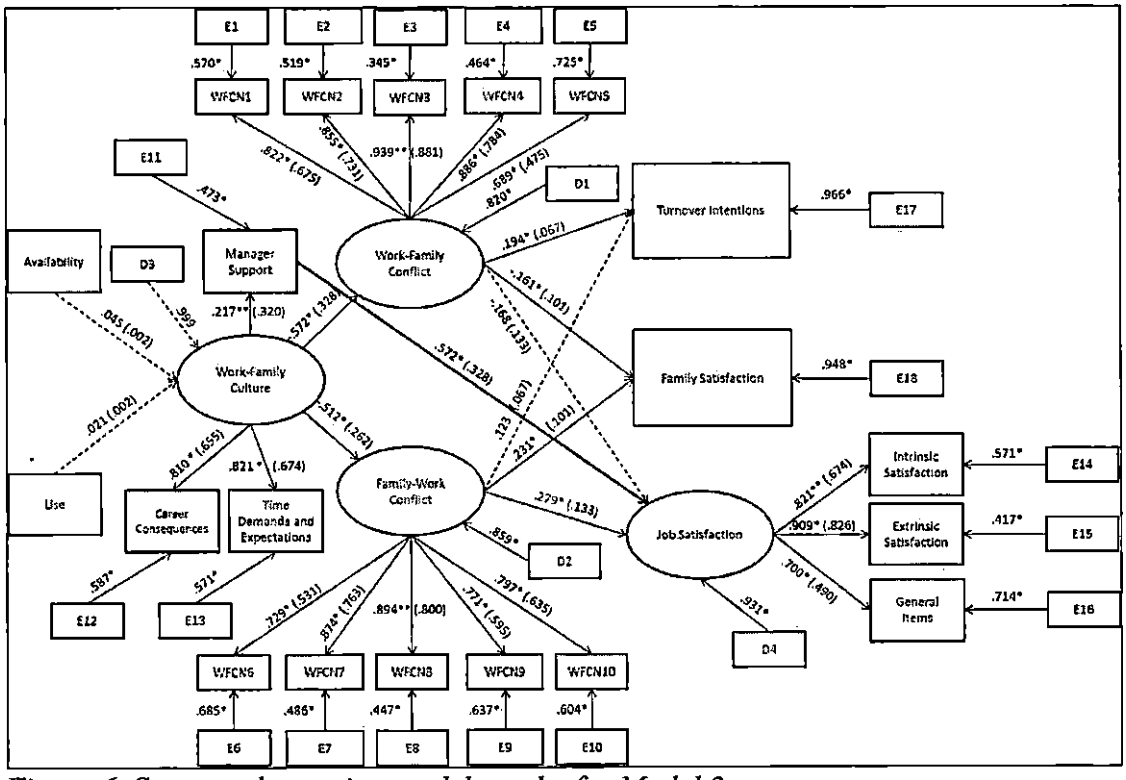

Figure 6. Structural equation model results for Model 2

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.
Dotted lines indicate insignificant parameters.

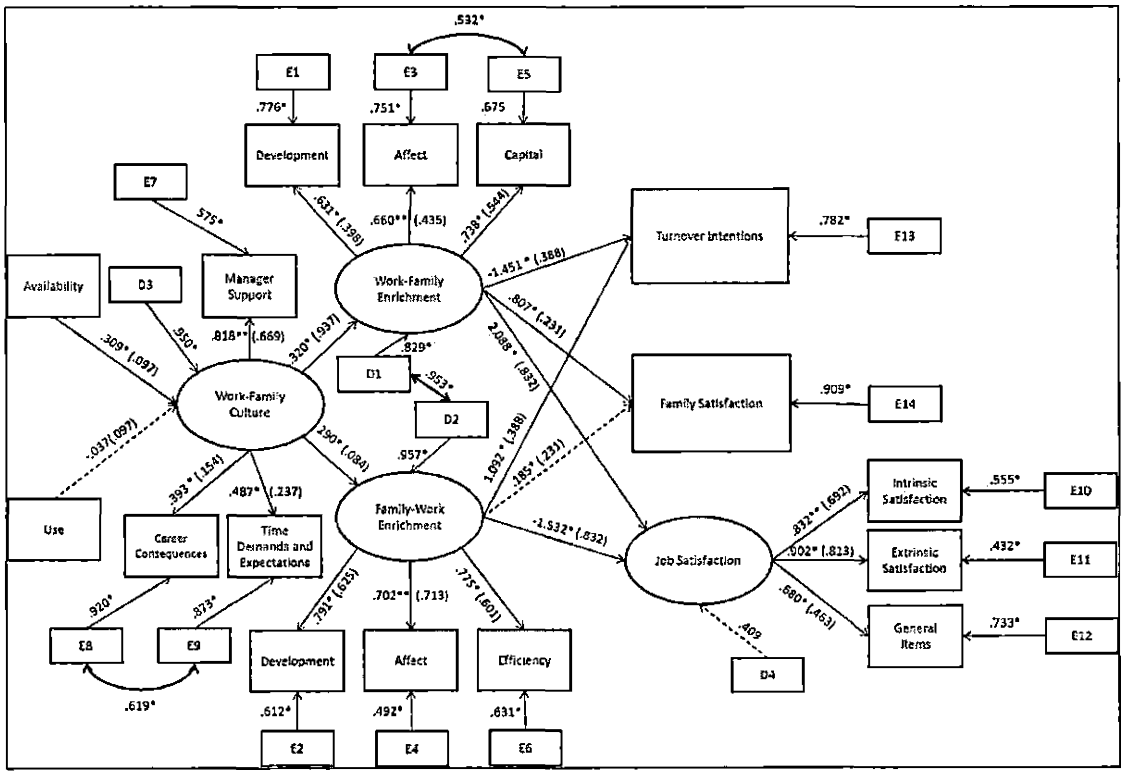

Figure 7. Structural equation model results for Model 5

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.
Dotted lines indicate insignificant parameters.

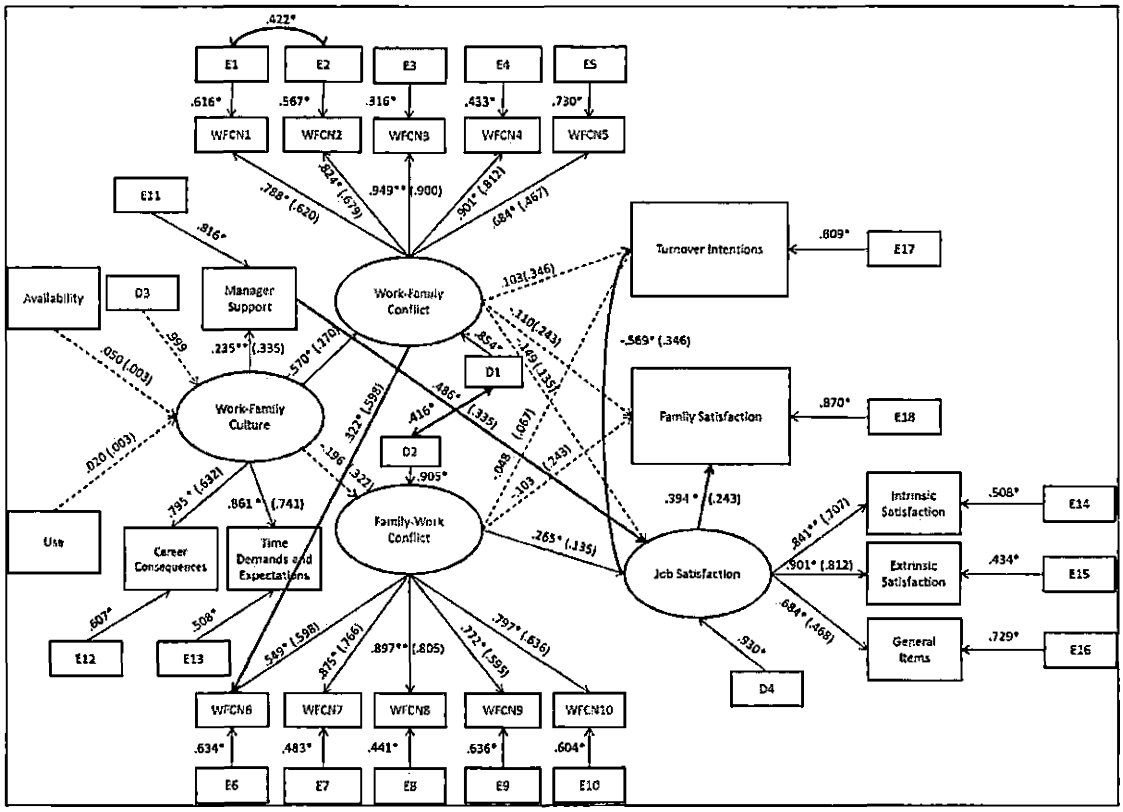

Figure 8. Structural equation model results for Model 3

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.
Dotted lines indicate insignificant parameters.

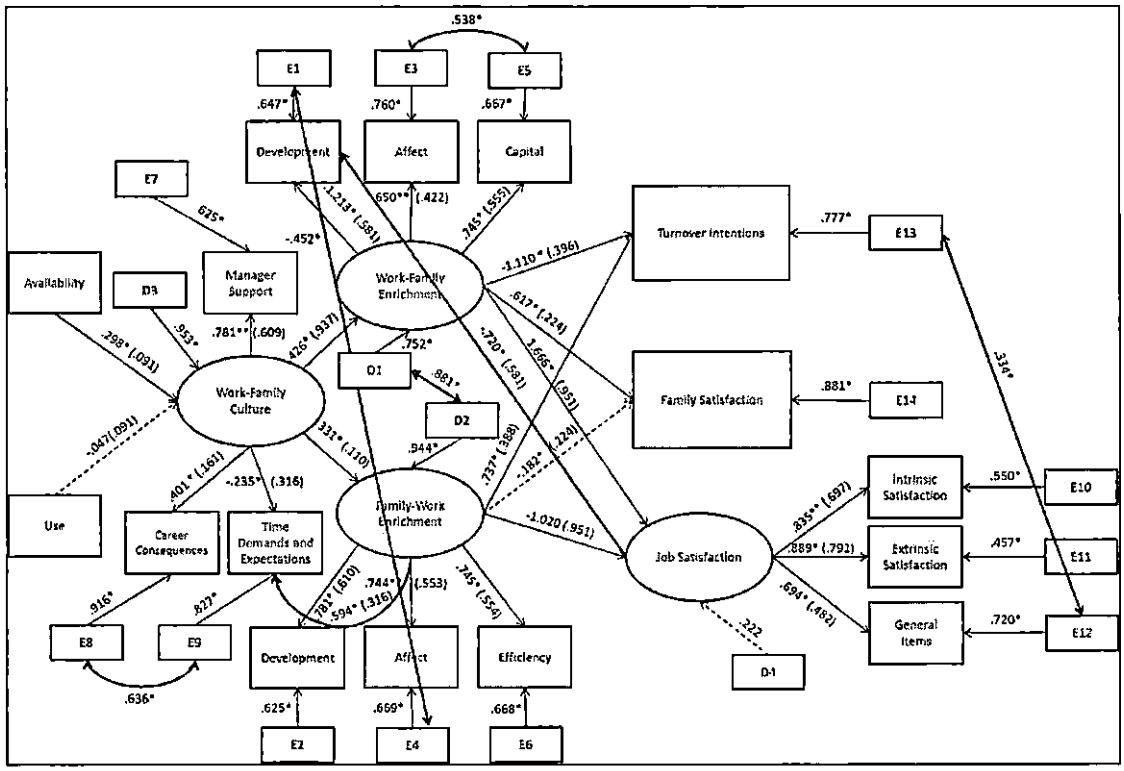

Figure 9. Structural equation model results for Model 6

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.
Dotted lines indicate insignificant parameters.

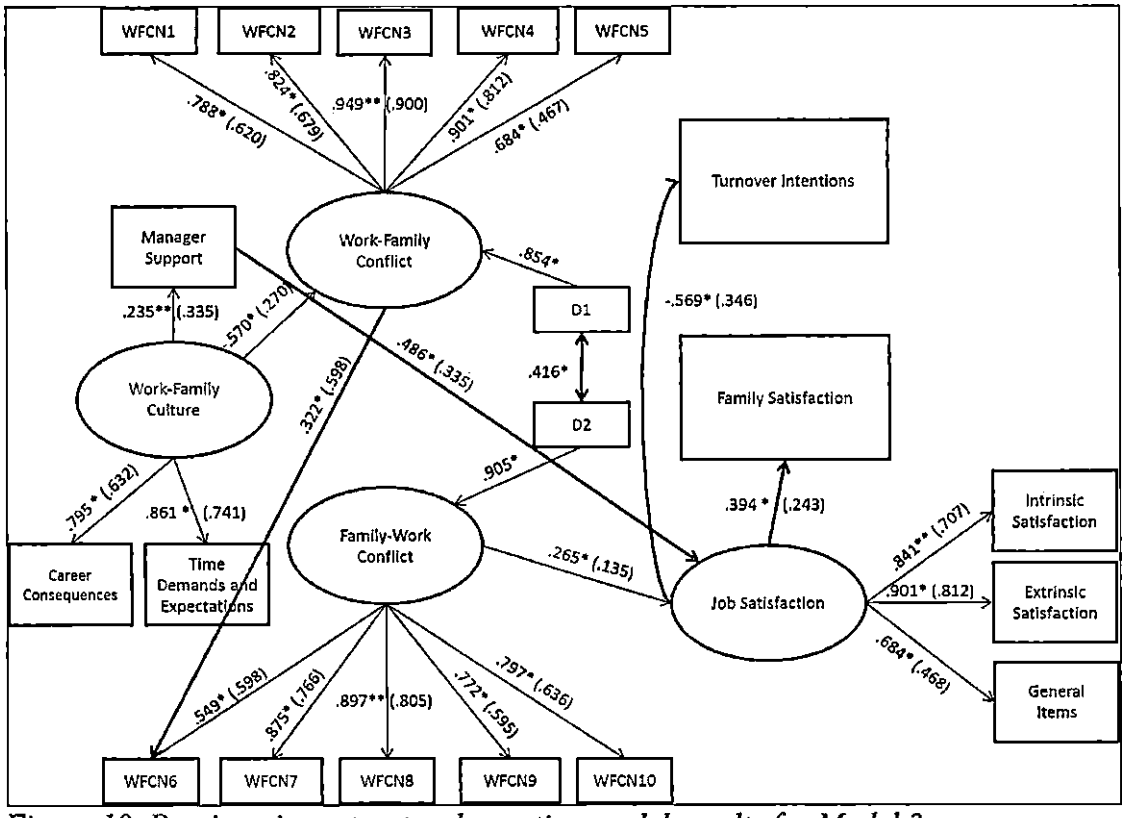

Figure 10. Parsimonious structural equation model results for Model 3

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.

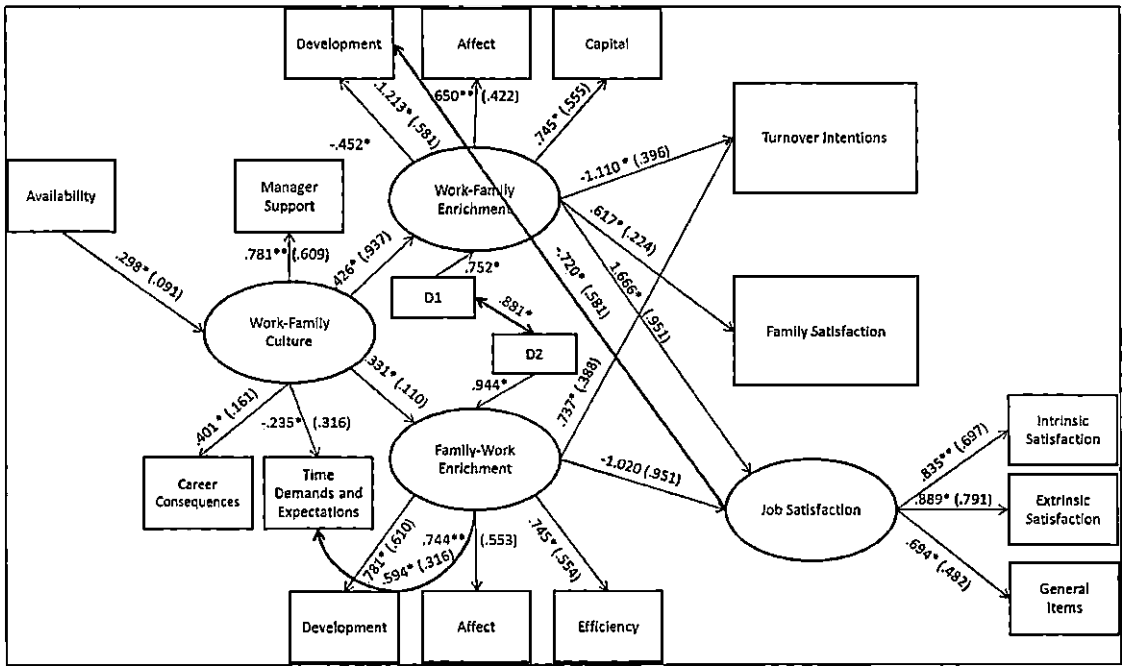

Figure 11. Parsimonious structural equation model results for Model 6

Note. $*p < .05$ **Indicates the path is constrained to 1
Bolded lines indicate parameters added to the original model.

APPENDIX D

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

Human Subjects Review Board
Department of Psychology
California State University,
San Bernardino

PI: Agars, Mark, & French, Kimberly

From: Donna Garcia

Project Title: Evaluating Commensurability and Validity of Work-Family Conflict, Enrichment, and Culture Measures in Low Income Populations

Project ID: H-FA11-12

Date: Monday, November 21, 2011

Disposition: Administrative Review

Your IRB proposal is approved. This approval is valid until 11/21/2012.

Good luck with your research!

Donna M. Garcia, Chair
Psychology IRB Sub-Committee

APPENDIX E

THESIS CODE BOOK

Thesis Code Book

ID – Participant ID number

Source – Where the data came from

1 = Bar = Surveys collected through the bar where I'm employed
2 = Sorority = Surveys collected from sorority members and probably completed by sorority members
3 = Snowball = Student collected snowball samples of low income community members
4 = CC = Surveys collected from Catholic Charities
5 = CAPSBC = Surveys collected from Community Action Partnership San Bernardino County
6 = Black and Decker = Surveys collected via Beverly's mother, who works at Black and Decker
7 = Kindercare = Surveys collected from Kindercare workers and clients

WFCN1-10 – Work-Family Conflict Netemeyer Scale

Enter number circled
1 = Strongly disagree
7 = Strongly agree
9 = Missing

**Higher values on all items indicate more conflict*
**WFCN1-5 = Work to family and WFCN6-10 = Family to work*
**Values summed to calculate facet and total values*

WFCC1-18 – Work-Family Conflict Carlson Scale

Enter number circled
1 = Strongly disagree
5 = Strongly agree
9 = Missing

**Higher values on all items indicate more conflict*
**WFCC1-3 = WF Time WFCC4-6 = FW Time WFCC7-9 = WF Strain WFCC10-12 = FW Strain WFCC13-15 = WF Behavior WFCC16-18 = FW Behavior*
**WFCC1-3, 7-9, 13-15 = Work to family and WFCC4-6, 10-12, 16-18 = Family to work*
**WFCC 1-6 = Time conflict WFCC 7-12 = Strain conflict WFCC 13-18 = Behavior conflict*
**Values summed to calculate facet and total values*

WFE1-18 – Work-Family Enrichment Carlson Scale

Enter number circled
1 = Strongly disagree
5 = Strongly agree
9 = Missing

**Higher values on all items indicate more enrichment*
**WFE1-3 = WF development WFE4-6 = WF affect WFE7-9 = WF capital WFE10-12 = FW development WFE13-15 = FW affect WFE16-18 = FW capital*
** WFE1-9 = Work to family and WFE10-18 = family to work*
**WFE1-3, 10-12 = Development WFE4-6, 13-15 = Affect WFE7-9, 16-18 = Capital*
**Values summed to calculate facet and total values*

WFCUL1-20 – Work-Family Culture Thompson Scale
Enter number circled
1 = Strongly disagree
7 = Strongly agree
9 = Missing

**Items 4, 6, 7, 9 -14, and 19 must be reverse coded*
**After reverse coding, higher values for all items indicate more supportive culture*
**WFCUL1-3, 5, 8, 14-18, 20 = Manager support WFCUL7, 9, 12, 13, 19 = Career consequences WFCUL4, 6, 10, 11 = Organizational time demands*
**Values summed to calculate facet and total values*

WFBA1-10 – Work Family Benefits Allen Scale – Available
1 = Checked
2 = Not Checked

WFBA1 = Flextime
WFBA2 = Compressed work week
WFBA3 = Telecommuting
WFBA4 = Part-time work
WFBA5 = On-Site childcare
WBFA6 = Subsidized local child care
WFBA7 = Child care info/referral
WFBA8 = Paid maternity leave
WFBA9 = Paid paternity leave
WFBA10 = Elder care

**Total calculated as number of benefits checked as available*

WFBU1-10 – Work Family Benefits Allen Scale - Used
1 = Checked
2 = Not Checked

WFBU1 = Flextime
WFBU2 = Compressed work week
WFBU3 = Telecommuting
WFBU4 = Part-time work
WFBU5 = On-Site childcare
WFBU6 = Subsidized local child care
WFBU7 = Child care info/referral
WFBU8 = Paid maternity leave
WFBU9 = Paid paternity leave
WFBU10 = Elder care

**Total calculated as number of benefits checked as used*

JS1-20 - Job Satisfaction MSQ
Enter number circled
1 = Very dissatisfied
5 = Very Satisfied
9 = Missing

**Higher values indicate more satisfaction*
**JS1-4, 7-11, 15, 16, 20 = Intrinsic Satisfaction JS5,6,12-14, 19 = Extrinsic Satisfaction JS17,18 = General Satisfaction*
**Values summed to calculate facet and total values*

FS1-3 – Family Satisfaction
Enter number circled
1 = Strongly disagree
7 = Strongly agree
9 = Missing

**FS3 needs to be reverse coded*
**After reverse coding, higher values indicate more satisfaction*
**Values summed to calculate total values*

TI1-4 - Turnover Intentions
Enter number circled
1 = Not accurate at all
4 = Extremely accurate
9 = Missing

**TI1 and 3-4 need to be reverse coded*
**After reverse coding, high values indicate greater intent to turnover*
**Values summed to calculate total values*

ZIP - Zip Code
Enter numbers
Missing = 99999

AGE - Age
Enter age
Missing = 99

GENDER - Gender
1 = Male
2 = Female
9 = Missing

RACE - Race/Ethnicity
1 = White
2 = Hispanic/Latino
3 = Asian
4 = Other
5 = American Indian or Alaska Native
6 = Black or African American
7 = Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
9 = Missing

ENG – Is English your first language?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

YRS ENG – How many years have you spoken English?
Type in # yrs
99 = Missing

MARITAL – Marital relationship/status
1 = Single
2 = Committed relationship
3 = Domestic partnership
4 = Married
5 = Separated
6 = Divorced
7 = Widow/widower
9 = Missing

EDU – Education level
1 = Up to grade 8
2 = Completed 8th grade
3 = Some high school
4 = High school diploma
5 = GED (General education diploma)
6 = Associate's degree (AA,AS, AAB)
7 = Bachelor's Degree (BA, BS)
8 = Graduate degree (MA, PhD)
9 = Missing

VOCTRG – Do you have additional vocational or technical traning/certificates?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

ENROLL – Are you currently enrolled at an educational institution?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PARENT – Do you have children?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

#CHIL – How many children do you have?
Enter number of children
99 = Missing

AGES – Please list their ages
List all ages of children separated by comma
99 = Missing

AGESYOUNG – Please list their ages
Age of the youngest child
99 = Missing

AGESOLD – Please list their ages
Age of the oldest child
99 = Missing

LIVE – How many live with you?
Enter number
99 = Missing

PRIMARY – Are you their primary caregiver
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

EMPLOY – Are you employed?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

STATUS
1 = Full-time
2 = Part-time
3 = Self-employed
9 = Missing

INDUSTRY – Industry Type
1 = Office/administrative support
2 = Transportation/materials moving
3 = Sales and related
4 = Construction
5 = Food Preparation/Serving
6 = Healthcare
7 = Production occupations
8 = Education/training
9 = Other
99 = Missing

OTHER – Industry other blank
Type in response
9 = Missing

LEVEL – Level of job
1 = Entry-level
2 = Management
3 = Executive
9 = Missing

YRS – How long have you worked at your current organization – years
Type in number of years
99 = Missing

MONTHS – How long have you worked at your current organization – months
Type in number of months
99 = Missing

TENURE – How long have you worked at your current organization
**Calculated as YRS+(MONTHS/12)*

HOURS – On average, how many hours do you work per week?
1 = 0-9
2 = 10-19
3 = 20-29
4 = 30-39
5 = 40-49
6 = 50-59
7 = 60 or more
9 = Missing

STATUS2
1 = Full-time
2 = Part-time
3 = Self-employed
9 = Missing

INDUSTRY2 – Industry Type
1 = Office/administrative support
2 = Transportation/materials moving
3 = Sales and related
4 = Construction
5 = Food Preparation/Serving
6 = Healthcare
7 = Production occupations
8 = Education/training
9 = Other
99 = Missing

OTHER2 – Industry other blank
Type in response
9 = Missing

LEVEL2 – Level of job
1 = Entry-level
2 = Management
3 = Executive
9 = Missing

YRS2 – How long have you worked at your current organization – years
Type in number of years
99 = Missing

MONTHS2 – How long have you worked at your current organization – months
Type in number of months
99 = Missing

TENURE2 – How long have you worked at your current organization
**Calculated as YRS2+(MONTHS2/12)*

HOURS2 – On average, how many hours do you work per week?
1 = 0-9
2 = 10-19
3 = 20-29
4 = 30-39
5 = 40-49
6 = 50-59
7 = 60 or more
9 = Missing

UNEMP – If not employed, please check the appropriate box
1 = Unemployed
2 = Retired
3 = On disability
4 = Homemaker
5 = Student
9 = Missing

LOOKING – Are you currently looking for work?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

LONG – If unemployed, how long have you been unemployed?
1 = Less than 1 month
2 = 1-3 months
3 = 4-6 months
4 = 6-12 months
5 = 1-2 years
6 = 2 or more years
9 = Missing
NOTE: All of the following questions regarding employment are directed at measuring spousal employment situation, as noted by the "S" at the end of the variable

EMPLOYS – Is your partner/spouse employed?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

STATUSS
1 = Full-time
2 = Part-time
3 = Self-employed
9 = Missing

INDUSTRYS – Industry Type
1 = Office/administrative support
2 = Transportation/materials moving
3 = Sales and related
4 = Construction
5 = Food Preparation/Serving
6 = Healthcare
7 = Production occupations
8 = Education/training
9 = Other
99 = Missing

OTHERS – Industry other blank
Type in response
9 = Missing

LEVELS – Level of job
1 = Entry-level
2 = Management
3 = Executive
9 = Missing

YRSS – How long has your spouse/partner worked at their current organization – years
Type in number of years
99 = Missing

MONTHSS – How long has your spouse/partner worked at their current organization – months
Type in number of months
99 = Missing

TENURES – How long have you worked at your current organization
**Calculated as YRSS+(MONTHSS/12)*

HOURSS – On average, how many hours does your spouse/partner work per week?
1 = 0-9
2 = 10-19
3 = 20-29
4 = 30-39
5 = 40-49
6 = 50-59
7 = 60 or more
9 = Missing

STATUS2S
1 = Full-time
2 = Part-time
3 = Self-employed
9 = Missing

INDUSTRY2S – Industry Type
1 = Office/administrative support
2 = Transportation/materials moving
3 = Sales and related
4 = Construction
5 = Food Preparation/Serving
6 = Healthcare
7 = Production occupations
8 = Education/training
9 = Other
99 = Missing

OTHER2S – Industry other blank
Type in response
9 = Missing

LEVEL2S – Level of job
1 = Entry-level
2 = Management
3 = Executive
9 = Missing

YRS2S – How long has your spouse/partner worked at their current organization – years
Type in number of years
99 = Missing

MONTHS2S – How long has your spouse/partner worked at their current organization – months
Type in number of months
99 = Missing

TENURES2 – How long have you worked at your current organization
**Calculated as YRSS2+(MONTHSS2/12)*

HOURS2S – On average, how many hours does your spouse/partner work per week?
1 = 0-9
2 = 10-19
3 = 20-29
4 = 30-39
5 = 40-49
6 = 50-59
7 = 60 or more
9 = Missing

UNEMPS – If not employed, please check the appropriate box
1 = Unemployed
2 = Retired
3 = On disability
4 = Homemaker
5 = Student
9 = Missing

LOOKINGS – Is your spouse/partner currently looking for work?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

LONGS – If unemployed, how long has your spouse/partner been unemployed?
1 = Less than 1 month
2 = 1-3 months
3 = 4-6 months
4 = 6-12 months
5 = 1-2 years
6 = 2 or more years
9 = Missing

PRIMARY – Are you the primary source of income for your household?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

SOURCE1-3 – What is your source of income? Please check all that apply.
Enter one number for each box checked – up to three checkmarks
1 = Employment
2 = Cash aid/TANF/Cal Works
3 = Alimony
4 = Child support
5 = Unemployment benefits
6 = Pension
7 = Social security/disability
9 = Missing

PERSINC – How much did YOU earn from all employers, before taxes and other deductions, for 2010?
Enter number written in blank – Do not write in dollar sign
999,999 = Missing

PERSINC1 – Would it amount to $15,000 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC2 – Would it amount to $17,500 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC3 – Would it amount to $20,000 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC4 – Would it amount to $12,500 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC5 – Would it amount to $10,000 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC6 – Would it amount to $12,500 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINC7 – Would it amount to $7,500 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

PERSINCTOT – Estimated interval based on yes/no questions
1 = 0-$7,500
2 = $7,500-$10,000
3 = $10,000-$12,500
4 = $12,500-$15,000
5 = $15,000-$17,500
6 = $17,500-$20,000
7 = $20,000 and above
9 = Missing

ESTPERSINC – If the person did not enter an exact amount on the first question, but did answer some of the yes/no options – what is their estimated income?
Enter estimation
999,999 = Missing

HSINC – How much was the total combined income of ALL MEMBERS of your family for 2010?
Enter number written in blank – Do not write in dollar sign
999,999 = Missing

HSINC1 – Would it amount to $25,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC2 – Would it amount to $35,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC3 – Would it amount to $40,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC4 – Would it amount to $30,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC5 – Would it amount to $15,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC6 – Would it amount to $20,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINC7 – Would it amount to $10,00 or more?
1 = Yes
2 = No
9 = Missing

HSINCTOT - If the person did not enter an exact amount on the first question, but did answer some of the yes/no options – what is their estimated income?
Enter estimation
1 = 0-$10,000
2 = $10,000-$15,000
3 = $15,000-$20,000
4 = $20,000-$25,000
5 = $25,000-$30,000
6 = $30,000-$35,000
7 = $35,000-$40,000
8 = $40,000 and above
9 = Missing

COMMENT – Please share any thoughts or comments you have about this survey
Write in text if they wrote something

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